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1951

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THE CLEARING HOUSE

A journal for progressive junior and
senior high-school people

Vol. VII

MARCH, 1933

No. 7

EDITORIAL

Let Us Rescue Our Glorious Adventure in Expansive Living

In the early days of the junior high school and of the "modern" high school, there was great enthusiasm for curricular enrichment to replace the dreary round of arithmetic, spelling, grammar, book history, algebra, and Latin paradigms. Bookkeeping, typewriting, community civics, general science, modern foreign languages, intuitive geometry, supplementary reading, supervised play, practical arts, home arts, art appreciation, poster design, picture making, music appreciation, assembly singing, bugle and drum corps, bands, orchestras, homerooms, clubs, athletics, dramatics, journalism, debating, student government, traffic control, entertainments, dads' and daughters' dinners, dances, school-grounds planting, and endless social projects involving school decoration—the modern school made brave attempts to reproduce significant aspects of social life to the end that social control through inhibitions might be replaced by social control through expansion involving self-activity, expression, initiation, and social participation.

Then along came the *authorities*—college professors with lectures, books, articles, and measuring devices. They had, apparently, no idea what the new school was trying to do, but they held places in schools of education which granted degrees and their influence was great. Lacking opportunity to express themselves by doing anything creative and constructive themselves for the emerging

school, they sought compensation through developing "a line." Partly by wise cracking, partly through coercion which their exalted positions gave them power to use with equally unimaginative and futile State departments and school superintendents, and partly through the glamor that their talk of coefficients and distributions and scales and "standards" and the rest of their scientific jargon assured them, they threw their influence on the side of conservatism, caution, and inertia.

Since they could not measure and so discuss with such assurance and abstruseness the outcomes of the joyous new curriculum in terms of life values, they tried measuring them in terms of "standards" and of later success in high school. But the "standards" were merely the norms drawn from the compilation of all of the inertias and stupidities and ignorances of conventional school curriculum makers and time allotters and diploma granters. And the later success in the conventional verbalistic hocus-pocus of academic high school was of course attainable in only slight degree by experiences in social life and individual self-expression from which Latin composition, French irregular verbs, literal quadratic equations, history dates, English rhetoric, and the latent heat of vaporization are so remote.

It was at the insistence of the professional members of the North Central Association and on the recommendations of State de-

partments of education and college professors of education all over the country that efforts were made "to bring order out of chaos." And so the sections of living experiences of the junior high school were collected into organized "general courses" presented for all or for many of the pupils. By 1917 the struggle was largely over. The proponents of a life curriculum had been beaten.

During the formative years of the junior high school, so far as the writer knows, only one college professor grasped the basis of the early curricular innovations. Bobbitt in *The Curriculum* presented cogently and convincingly the case for play-level learning. But by the time his *How to Make a Curriculum* appeared he too had deserted expansive living as the chief mode of learning.

To be sure Charles H. Johnston and Thomas H. Briggs gave very real moral support to those practitioners who sought to create motivated exploratory opportunities by means of general courses which were of intrinsic value apart from conscious exploratory purposes and apart from preparatory values. But Johnston died, and Briggs came to support the "mastery" concept of Flexner and of Morrison.

Subject specialists—natural scientists, mathematicians, geographers, historians, French, Latin, and other linguistic enthusiasts—seized control. Departmental teaching, urged by college professors and regional association committees, gave them power.

Vocational guidance "experts" transmogrified the exploratory courses into try-out, skill-developing subjects. Spontaneity and enthusiasm gave way to docility and resignation.

It is not strange, therefore, that no one is satisfied with the present state of affairs. Cline¹ reports that there are now few ex-

ploratory units in existence; that 50 per cent of the schools that he questioned had made no additions of such units in the past five years; that 25 per cent of them have either dropped one or more exploratory units or have substituted therefor "old-time" subjects—Latin, biology, and algebra.

Cline urges the replacement of try-out courses by general courses. But it is not the form that is at fault; it is the spirit. Bruner's try-out and broadening and finding courses at Okmulgee succeeded because they were suffused by enthusiasm instead of "mastery techniques." "The Work of the World" at Solvay and general science at Blewett were expansive and stimulating because objective tests of facts memorized by pupils were ruled out and kept out!

Not that testers and measurers and administrators are harmful, per se. If the psychologists who are interested in human traits and social needs can popularize the use of self-ordinary-ideal rating scales and other measures of traits significant for life, they may yet make positive contributions to educational progress and expiate their sins of 1915 to 1930. And if administrators find, as public opinion may soon force them to do, that they must move forward instead of continually holding back, they too may sanction and even encourage teachers of science to show enthusiasm for nature and beauty and romance, and encourage teachers of mathematics to adventure into natural and social sciences and shops and homes wherein quantitative thinking has real place, and stimulate teachers of foreign languages to promote international understanding through the current literature of Europeans, Latin Americans, Chinese, Japanese, and Indians—without worrying about "mastery" of forms and gradations of difficulty.

We may yet regain the spirit of the junior high schools of 1910 to 1917. Indeed, we have not entirely lost it. In our best junior high schools there are music teachers,

¹ E. C. Cline, "Junior-High-School Exploratory Units in Practice," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, November 1932, pp. 152-156.

EDITORIAL

art teachers, English teachers, shop teachers, home-economics teachers, physical-education teachers, and, occasionally, even commercial teachers and social-studies teachers, who have exploited school and community resources and so have expanded general courses. Through their exploitations of clubs, assemblies, Scouts, needs for beautification of homes and school buildings, school papers and magazines, homeroom projects, school equipments, athletics, economic and political enthusiasms, school campaigns, and dozens of other opportunities for life, such teachers have succeeded in guiding youths to participate actively in an ever expanding life.

Expansive general courses wait upon teachers who are free and who are able to recognize the implications of expansive social and individual lives for their children. Youths need not be bored with general mathematics, general science, general social study, and general language as they too often are now. But enthusiasm will not generate until and unless junior-high-school teachers forget all about the absurd stereotyped nonsense that constitutes the mathematics, foreign languages, history, and science courses of many senescent senior high schools and which reflect themselves in and in turn reflect the college entrance board and Regents examinations.

Expansive general courses will involve all youths in positive associational living of school and community; constructive activities will develop skeptical but positive civic attitudes towards school and community *mores* and needs, will encourage wholesome living among youths, will promote oral and written expression of their opinions and feelings, will give practice in scientific methods of dealing with unanswerable questions, will share appreciations of beauty and wonderfulness of the world of nature and human behaviors in which they live, and will provide practical efficiencies typical of the world in which they are to live.

The designers and teachers of general

courses will then cease to have any special faith in the mystical power of subjects as such to educate youths through "mastery" for they will know that mastery accompanied by hate is far worse than lack of mastery accompanied by ever so slight enthusiasm. They will know that scientific analyses to find the sociological values of facts and processes are open to the same objections, though the elimination of the quite useless aspects of subjects decreases the need for arbitrary superimposition of assigned tastes and, hence, the likelihood of boredom and dislike for the subjects. In all cases, therefore, will general course be motivated by realities, applications to school and communities in the activities of which youths do now or might readily be persuaded to engage; the few facts and processes that must be controlled by all will be drawn out of the motivated projects for practice or drill that may increase youths' confidence to engage in further projects adequately. For the most part, however, sponsors of expansive general subjects will forget all about the alleged need of mastery of any process or knowledge; they will know that, if pupils are enlivened first, they will seek self-enlightenment. For if youths or adults can be brought to the point of having unanswered questions which surge into consciousness again and again, they will spend their days and nights seeking answers, reviewing, reevaluating, and elaborating all that they have so happily learned in the past in the light of all that they are now learning.

General courses are courses for amateurs. Not for money, not for credits, not for marks, not for teachers' approbations do children work in general courses. The joy and adventure are potent to keep youths engaged in the projects of self-expression. Without joy and adventure, nothing else can suffice; and, hence, general courses for mastery and marks universally fail to stimulate youths to self-exploration.—P.W.L.C.

PIONEERS, O PIONEERS

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Briggs, with his customary insight into current affairs, maintains that "we are indeed on a new frontier. . . . Have we the vision to see conditions as they are?" After reading this article, CLEARING HOUSE readers will have more courage to help create a new civilization.* F.E.L.

FRONTIERS have been the wealth, the opportunity, and the luring hope of America. While the conservative and the fearful hugged the contented fireside and worshipped the ancient lares and penates in static safety, pioneers pushed out into the unexplored wilds—across the Appalachians, over the prairies, scaled the Rocky Mountains, and finally were stopped by the immensity of the Pacific ocean.

Not for delectations sweet,
Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful
and the studious,
Not the riches safe and palling, not for them the
tame enjoyment,
Pioneers, O Pioneers!

Was it seeking or escape that drove these early pioneers away from comforts and friends and established conventions out into the unknown? What were they seeking? What were they escaping? It pleases us to stress the impelling ideals for religious or political or social freedom, but it is likely that failure, unhappiness, and restlessness were quite as much a cause of their pushing out from settled conditions. Many of the pioneers doubtless moved from the Atlantic seaboard for escape rather than for opportunity; but those who are most significant for us must have had a vision of the great dream, must have felt in their veins the tingling blood of democracy, must have chanted in their hearts:

"We the youthful sinewy races,
all the rest on us depend."

They wanted to be free, to discover new opportunities to make a new world—even for those who stayed behind.

These latter viewed with mixed feelings the adventurous pioneers. Some doubtless

envied them, wishing that they too had the hardihood and the courage to break the accustomed bonds and seek a new world. But others felt pity and contempt rather than envy. "This is good enough for us," they said, though unperceived changed conditions had already put hopelessly out of date the traditions of the old world and of old time. "There's nothing there. They will come back." But on the possibility that something *might* be there they grubstaked the pioneers and waited, equally ready to reproach the failures or to profit from their successes. Human nature is remarkably constant through all the ages.

Whatever the motive that sent him forth, however difficult the plunge into unexplored wildernesses, however exhilarating the discovery of new frontiers, what the pioneer did when he got there is a pathetic and tragic illustration of the inadequacy of man unprepared for new conditions to utilize them for the realization of his dream. Without perceiving that a new world demands new conventions, the pioneer as a rule endeavored to make the frontier as nearly like the community that he had left as possible. Many a top hat and frock coat were worn in the wilderness, worn with pride until the stern necessities of new conditions made them ridiculous, and then were carefully put away until the opportune time when the new world should become like the old. It was hard for Yancey Cravat to see that his silk "beaver" was neither appropriate nor useful in either the civilization that he had left or in the one that he was helping to make.

But changes in the physical were easy to perceive in comparison with those in the intellectual or spiritual world. The coonskin

PIONEERS, O PIONEERS

cap replaced the silk hat long before the pioneer had any suspicion that the old forms of education were equally useless for the needs of his children. The Latin grammar school was desired and imitated even though conditions in England had already made it an anachronism. The pioneer may have had his ideal, but usually he was inadequate to provide the machinery to achieve it. He said that he would set up schools to train religious and political leaders, but he imitated the institutions that could produce only theologians and grammarians. The form never ensures the spirit.

And then came another tragedy. When the traditional form failed to achieve the ideal, faith in both the form and the ideal tended to weaken. There was an indiscriminating abandoning of both, with a resulting handicap to the progress of the new civilization that had been the goal of all the danger and labor and privation and sacrifice. The ideals were distinctly higher than those they had replaced. There was good in some of the old machinery if the pioneer had only been discriminating enough to see it and strong enough to adapt and preserve it. Discrediting and largely abandoning the old machinery, the pioneer set himself to slog ahead at making a physical living, as if the new civilization had no demands of its own and as if the old would never catch up. It never did—entirely; but parts of it he retained and other parts were brought by the recurrent waves of less hardy followers. And then the children were found skeptical that any of the old was worth possessing or worth seeking and lacking in a vision of the new. Would there had been farsighted and persevering leaders in those days!

The result of all this was that the unique advantages of the frontier so far as they pertained to a civilization adapted to new conditions were largely lost. When new conditions are met all men are by training, by habituation to old conditions, more or less

equal. They become unequal and some gain a great advantage by recognizing that the situation is different, by analyzing it to find the new opportunities and the challenge, by fertility in inventing new ways of using the former to meet the latter, by quickly and certainly testing them and selecting those that give the greater satisfactions, and by open-minded readiness to adopt for use the best program of action. But all this assumes one essential, a comprehensive set of ideals, a vision of the world that is desired to be.

I have dwelt so long on the pioneer of our physical America not merely because he was picturesque and important in the development of our country, but because his career is so precisely paralleled by the pioneer of every kind in every time. The geographical frontier has largely been gone since the early nineties, but we are no less today on a new frontier of ideas, a frontier created by social, industrial, economic, and political changes. This frontier can never be closed. Whenever and wherever there are a changing world and changing ideals of life there will be new frontiers. Every advance of whatever kind pushes out new fringes of civilization. It will be a sad day in our history when we catch up with ourselves, when in complacency we consolidate a permanent life, beyond which the rest of the world will inevitably advance, leaving us a moldering relic of the past.

The physical frontier had to be sought; the new frontier envelopes us regardless of volition or of action. The former was easier to find, however, than the latter is to perceive. The former was our potential wealth, our opportunity, and our hope; the latter is the only world in which we have to live. We must recognize it for what it is and devise means of making it what it should be—or we are undone. Again, "We the youthful sinewy races, all the rest on us depend."

It is always a tragedy that the pioneer finds it so difficult to recognize and to an-

alyze the wholeness of a new situation. He is too close to it, too involved in it, too busy with routine and detailed things, too obsessed by the idea that he must identify fragments of the new with the wholeness of the old, too eager to use the worn keys on the ring that he has carefully preserved. He seldom even perceives the necessity of understanding the new complex. Instead, he seeks or demands or vaguely hopes for some specific that is immediate and final, as if that could ever exist. He will grasp for any definite device, however minor it may be, that promises to "work" for the instant need; but he is slow to be concerned with a program that is suitable for the whole complicated need, especially a program that involves the remote and the dimly perceived. No one more than the pioneer needs leadership. "Nothing ever happened in the world as prophets and leaders wished it to do," sagely remarked Georg Simmel, "but without prophets and leaders it would not have happened at all." Never more than now has the pioneer needed leadership that is far-sighted, that, envisaging the whole, goes to the bottom of things to build a solid foundation for a brave new structure to house the new world of a new civilization.

Oh, how I wish that some cold wise man
Would dig beneath the surface which is scraped,
Deal with the depths.

A difficulty in our confusion is to know who the true leaders are. On every hand we hear proposed foolish specifics, ranging from defunct old fashions to ephemeral invention. But we need to listen with patience and to consider sympathetically as well as critically the proposals of every one who thinks himself a seer and a leader. Any one may have seized upon and understood a part of the complex that we have ignored as insignificant. Each one has certainly seen a part, if not the whole, from a different point of view that may have revealed values hidden from others. He may have blundered,

in that inexplicable way that human beings have the habit of doing, upon the beginnings of the very plan that wise men have fumbled for and failed to find. He may be able to give a clue, the mere suggestive end of a string that will lead others on more rationally to a comprehending plan.

After all suggestions are sympathetically and critically considered, after all clues are followed by intelligent imaginative and constructive reflection, there must come a synthesis based on broad and deep understanding of the phenomena of the new and still changing frontier. Such a synthesis can be made only by our best minds, chosen for competence, and devoted to the all important task. Their work must be inspired by the constant ideals of our nation, ideals purified from the contaminations of selfishness and illuminated again for the devoted acceptance of all the people. And after the program that education is to follow for achieving these ideals is formulated, it will be tried in the crucible of public opinion, which, though uncertain and variable, is an essential of democracy. Unless the people are informed and approve, no program can have stability or promise of permanent success.

The nature and extent of the social, political, and economic changes that have brought a new frontier can only be suggested here. They are too important and too numerous to be discussed or even to be listed in their entirety. We do not know them in their entirety yet; we do not fully understand those that we perceive. But we have a world vastly extended by the inventions of communication and of transportation; we have a marvelous decrease of physical isolation as cities have grown and as good roads facilitate travel; we have a paradoxical weakening of social ties as men live closer together but with less sympathy and sense of responsibility for each other; we have a weakening of home influences as divorce in-

PIONEERS, O PIONEERS

creases, as both parents are increasingly away on business or pleasure, and as other agencies have with less success taken over responsibilities for the children; we have the tragic breakdown of the urban Protestant and Jewish churches; we have changed and changing mores that approve what was formerly condemned and that scorn what was once sacred; we have a new standard for ethical character, vague perhaps but assuredly different; we have politics that wander selfishly and ineffectively for the public good in the new clearings of the wilderness; we have specialization in industry that demands a revolution in training; we have potency of production by machinery that ensures not only plenty for all wants but leisure that needs direction; we have a host of means of occupying leisure time with a demand for minimum activity and with a paucity of beneficent results; and we have the vast organization of an unparalleled school system negligibly concerned with any of these important phenomena. These are but illustrations of the conditions which confront us on the new frontier, conditions that we can by no means escape. We must understand them individually and as parts of the hierarchy of modern civilization, understand them and adapt our education to make the best possible out of them.

We have been critical of the pioneer on the geographic frontiers of our country. However, unless we learn from his neglect of opportunity how wisely to act on the new frontier of ideas, we shall be even more severely criticized by generations to come. We need first of all to understand the changes that have come, some of them gradually, a few with appalling suddenness, in this maelstrom of life in which we find ourselves. We need to understand far more than the cold figures of machine production or even the accumulated data of the sociologists. Their significance, their threat,

and their promise challenge our intelligence. We must understand their significances and plan to change the frontier or to adapt our lives to them so that more happiness will come to all our people. It is easy to smile at the early pioneer who stodgily and stubbornly hoped to reproduce the past; it is difficult but imperative that we abandon his vain hope of restoring "the good old days" and set ourselves to finding what we can make of the good new days. They are all that we shall have.

It should be obvious to the most cursive and superficial thinker, however, that understanding of the social mutations will not be sufficient. No one can plan wisely unless he has a goal that he wishes to reach. "The American dream" has, unfortunately and tragically, become vague and to many of those who boast of citizenship it has never become a permanent and moving vision of the goal towards the achievement of which all effort, all sacrifice must be directed. The dream of a people made free by opportunity for every one to achieve the best that is possible in him, but then to ensure that same differentiated opportunity, whatever it may be, to all others, and coöperatively to live in harmony and mutual respect with varied developments still going on—this is the dream that we preserve from the past and that still inspires passionate devotion in those who have never taken their eyes from the pillar of cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night. Unless all of our people accept and devotedly seek this ideal on the new frontier we shall more and more bend the knee to Baal and wander from democracy.

Understanding of the complex new phenomena, then, important and difficult as it is, will be significant only if it furnishes the materials out of which we may build towards the ideal. And that building can be done chiefly, I almost go so far as to say only, by the public schools. However much

they have failed of ideal accomplishment in the past, they remain our only means of salvation for the future. Their failure, to which may be attributed most of the woes that now harass us, should be blamed mostly on a public that got what they demanded while eagerly and, in a large sense, blindly seeking to reproduce the details of an outmoded civilization on a new frontier. Education, even at its worst, has more than the public kept the vision of democracy. But when it attempted seriously to achieve it, teachers ran into somebody's blockhouse of social traditions, somebody's industrial stockade, or somebody's political barb wire. Driven back by guns from the defenses of selfishness, the schools have been less and less able to inspire the younger generations with the vision of what might be, the vision of what must be for a successful democracy.

And yet education is being blamed. Both attempting and accomplishing more than the general public has seriously wanted, the schools are now the target for criticism as unfair as it is virulent. The rich who would lighten their burden of taxation employ or encourage popular writers to emphasize every dereliction of duty, every defect of program, and every apparent extravagance. Education has no apology for towers, marble corridors, swimming pools, and stadia, however much it would like to have now for more important things the money that they cost. They were what the people wanted. They came along with gold domes on court houses, limousines for sheriffs, monster "memorial" auditoriums, and luxury in every home. I suspect that they still have a reasonable defense. But they are not the weakest joint in our armor. Neither is that rare teacher who complained that she couldn't go to Bermuda because her salary was cut, nor that high school with too many janitors, nor that superintendent who was convicted of crime—all being falsely indicated as "typical." The point of vulnera-

bility is that education has not seriously and consistently and courageously and persistently sought to convince the public that the schools alone can keep the eyes of each oncoming generation firmly fixed on the one great goal of democracy.

It is human nature to seek something to blame. It is the nature of little and of selfish men to make petty and physical changes without seeking and planning to eradicate the real causes of trouble and without preparing a constructive program that will lead to great accomplishment in the future. History tells instance after instance of our pioneer forefathers, resentful of conditions that had developed because of their short-sighted selfishness, laying about with a stick at every head that showed itself, even at those that had to be used for remedying their woes. Have we learned nothing from history? If the schools have not been wiser than the public, if anticipating needs they have not gone beyond popular approval and prevented social, economic, and political ills, shall the public now destroy or weaken the only instrument it has for bringing about what it wants? Blame we are sure to have, mounting and unfair criticism we assuredly must be prepared to meet. It is only reasonable to expect all schoolmen and women to coöperate in all necessary economy and in remedying conditions that for any reason are bad. But we shall not manifest professional competence unless at the same time we keep before the public mind the essential fact that education is the one and only means for training the younger generations to accept and effectively to live by the program that this generation must prepare.

And the planning of such a program we must forward both as educational leaders and as citizens. I am not so foolish as to think that any and every individual schoolmaster should forthwith set out in his classroom to reform society. Nor am I so foolish as to imagine that a society without a plan

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can permanently succeed, to say nothing of progressing. Although the public has basked in that illusion, it has been battered by the events of the past few years into a readiness to accept leadership towards anything that promises amelioration. The individual schoolmaster can do something to induce an acceptance of a program of planning for achieving the dream of democracy on the new frontier; but he needs direction and support. And both can be given by our great educational organizations. If the National Educational Association, with its numerous and potent departments, and the State associations will concentrate their strength on this necessity of planning a program, which education must be used to make effective, it already has an enlisted army of the superior minds of the nation to popularize and to promote an appreciation of the need in every community of our country. But before education can be made effective the people, or at least their leaders, must agree on what they want and thus be prepared to support the work of the schools on the new frontier.

The elementary schools are already so organized that the introduction of a coöperating plan will be relatively easy. The problem and the greater opportunity will lie in the secondary schools, which are conceived as embracing both the junior high school and the junior college. It is in this period that the intellect has developed so that more than average understanding is possible, and it is in this period that the necessary emotional approval and stimulus to devoted action can be developed. Elementary education can lay the foundation and furnish the simpler tools, but it is secondary education that must be used to make effective the great program or any major part of it for achieving the ideals adopted for national prosperity and happiness.

The achievements of our secondary schools are great and not to be deprecated.

Their possibilities are far greater and must be seriously and strenuously sought. We in the United States have accepted the ideal, unique in the whole world, of providing a secondary education appropriate to the needs of every youth. This ideal is not likely to be abandoned, primarily because it is intertwined with the roots of democracy, but also because, as I have elsewhere pointed out, there is nothing else that society can do with youth but educate him. Already we have about half our youth in secondary schools, and the fraction must inevitably increase. But the appropriate education, varying far beyond the accustomed limits, we have yet to provide for the great number who have neither the competence nor the need for traditional courses. The effort to force them upon all youth results in waste not only of time and money but of the far more important opportunity to make the secondary schools contribute largely and vitally to the welfare of the nation and the happiness of its people. The new education must begin with and consistently continue to seek the good of the supporting society.

Although criticism and restricted budgets are uncomfortable, I am inclined to think that they are by no means wholly bad for secondary education at the present time. If we are competent professionally, they will compel a franker appraisal of our own work than we are accustomed to give, a seeking to understand the new frontier on which we are living, the construction of a program that will prepare every youth according to his aptitudes and capacities for its needs, and then a bold and continuous campaign to interpret this program to the people. Every individual schoolman and woman should accept this professional challenge and devote such intellectual powers as he has to understanding and to invention. Then in professional organizations they will evaluate contributed ideas and put an adopted program convincingly before the people.

We are indeed on a new frontier. As the old has moved back, many of its needs have gone. As the new has moved up, many new needs have come. Have we the vision to see conditions as they are, the wisdom to interpret them for their true significances, the high dream to indicate the goal towards which they should move, the ability to plan for an educational program that will utilize the facts to achieve the dream, and the strength not only to endure criticism and privations but also to carry on, always on, until we have made the public see too and when convinced accept the coöperative responsibility? This is the challenge that we have on the new frontier. It involves more than pedagogical improvements of traditional classics. It means creating a new

civilization suited to the new frontier and intelligently using the schools as the most potent means of progress. It means that the schoolmaster will no longer be the petty tyrant of the ferrule or the sympathetic guide through the mazes of inherited tradition. Instead, with eyes fixed on the high goal, with mind comprehending and approving the comprehensive program for progress, you will apply your strength to the making of a brave new world good for all who live in it.

Not for delectations sweet,
Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful
and the studious,
Not the riches safe and palling, not for you the
tame enjoyment.
Pioneers, O Pioneers.

THE TENDENCY TOWARDS INTEGRATION IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM¹

JESSE H. NEWLON

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Newlon, after a wealth of public-school experience as principal and superintendent, is now devoting his time to experimental work in education at Teachers College at Columbia. From this vantage point he is particularly fitted to write of new trends. He sees signs of integration in the high-school curriculum.* F.E.H.

THE trend towards integration in the high-school curriculum is clearly discernible. For fifty years the high school has struggled to adapt itself to changing conditions by the process of adding new subjects of study, until today the offerings of the large metropolitan high school constitute an amazing array of studies ranging all the way from advertising to geometry. The recent survey found more than 125 distinct subject fields represented in the Chicago high schools. Even the small high school must offer a number of choices in order to introduce the "practical" element into secondary education, while compelling youth to accept the older subjects as offering the reality of a

vital general education. The high-school curriculum is a scene of disorder. It is marked by inconsistencies. It attempts to practise at once rigid prescription and wide freedom of choice. It gives lip service to the new psychology of learning and the new method but clings firmly to the old. The new movement towards integration aims to bring some order out of this chaos, so far as general education is concerned, by focusing learning on crucial issues and tendencies in contemporary life and by largely disregarding subjects as such.

The phenomenal expansion of the high-school curriculum has had two pronounced effects. On the one hand, it has forced the school authorities to rely mainly on conventional subjects and conventional subject

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matter to accomplish the purposes of general education. High-school teachers and administrators, lacking any adequate philosophy by which to guide their course, have clung desperately to familiar academic objects in an educational scene shifting with dizzying rapidity. Powerful forces outside the school likewise have operated to emphasize the importance of the older subjects that have continued amidst all change to constitute the core of the curriculum. College entrance requirements have exerted such an influence; the force of public opinion, at least of certain influential groups in the community, has been felt. The so-called educated classes of the community have been too prone to demand that the high school continue to emphasize the importance of the older subjects while adding to its curriculum many newer subjects of practical value and especially designed to meet the needs of the heterogeneous multitude of youth who have been crowding into its halls in the last four decades. Beyond the required conventional subjects chaos reigns. We have, then, an unfortunate dichotomy in curricular practice. The older subjects which were supposed to afford the values of general education have lost much of their social value and vitality, and are under constant criticism. Subject matter is so highly departmentalized and the forces of tradition are so strong that it has been difficult to bring education in these fields within the purview of modern thought and cultural conditions. Beyond these core subjects of conventional English, history and civics, laboratory sciences, mathematics, and Latin or a modern language, lies a vast field of electives from which students choose. The domain of the older subjects has been constantly whittled away until it constitutes scarcely half of the high-school course for any individual. Everywhere units and credits prevail, so that we have what has been described by Dr. Learned as a "department-store method of

education" in the high school, with the individual accumulating a credit here and there until he has amassed a total of fifteen units which entitles him to a diploma.

Three problems in reconstructing the secondary-school curriculum, therefore, clearly emerge. First, general education must be made more vital and effective. It must be extended to include many of the values inherent in the newer subjects. Second, some integration must bring order out of chaos in the vast sea of electives. Finally, teaching must be reorganized in harmony with the newer and more widely accepted principles of learning. Two tendencies fused into one constitute the trend towards integration. The new integrated courses are organized around vital problems that involve fields originally divided into two or more subjects. They are designed both to provide a more comprehensive and better rounded general education and to utilize more effective methods of learning.

The tendency towards integration has been clearly discernible for more than twenty years. The earliest experimentation was with general mathematics, but the first successful attempt at unification or integration was in general science. It was felt that youth of junior-high-school age should be given a practical and interesting introduction to science. The most successful general-science courses were built around scientific problems closely connected with the everyday experience of children that involved not one science but several. Many conventional-minded science teachers considered such a program utterly unthinkable, but the new idea had a strong popular appeal and in twenty years has certainly demonstrated its validity. General-science courses are common now in the secondary schools throughout the entire country. About a decade ago this principle was introduced in the social sciences, particularly at the junior-high-school level. So-called "unified" social-science courses, organ-

ized around broad themes or problems of contemporary life according to varying plans, gained widespread acceptance, and it would look as if history were about to repeat itself and the unified social-science programs become as popular as the general-science offerings. In recent years a more satisfactory integration of mathematics subjects has been effected at the junior-high-school level, and the general mathematics course is now the accepted practice in all schools that make any pretense to being progressive. This tendency is now discernible in the mathematics offerings of a number of senior high schools.

The tendency towards integration first appeared in the elementary school. The "activity" curriculum, the project, the problem, the unit of work, especially where units, projects, and problems are broadly conceived and involve more than one subject, are only other names for the process of integration. Even in the elementary school the multiplication of subjects became a fetish. Where subjects obtained, teaching tended to be formal and *memoriter* in character. Effective learning, where the learner is engaged in the study of problems or in activities of genuine social value and of gripping interest to himself, cannot be confined within the boundaries of a subject. The psychological approach to teaching has encountered almost insuperable difficulties where rigid departmentalization has obtained. So-called "activity" curricula are found in the primary grades in many thousands of liberal public and private schools today, and this method is being extended through the intermediate and upper grades in one form or another.

The same movement has appeared in the college in recent years. The first experiment was at Columbia University with the famous contemporary civilization course, an integration of the social sciences around the crucial social problems of contemporary life. This course which dates back to the war

was never more popular than today. The orientation course in one form or another has made its appearance in many colleges. These courses are utilized in the social sciences and humanities and in the physical and biological sciences. Recently the University of Chicago has been reorganized into four large divisions—the social sciences, the physical sciences, the biological sciences, and the humanities. Each of these divisions offers a course, involving several departments, running through the sophomore and freshman years of the college. Meiklejohn at the University of Wisconsin adopted the same plan. The work of the experimental college was organized around two large themes, Greek culture and contemporary western culture. Subjects as such, in theory at least, did not appear in the curriculum.

The senior high school has been the last unit in the educational system to be touched by this movement, and is as yet little affected. But a new interest in this approach to curriculum reconstruction is clearly discernible in the high school. Many interesting projects are under way. In the Lincoln School of Teachers College a study of certain eastern and western cultures has been carried on in one class in the seventh and eighth grades, and while not a fusion of English, art, and the social studies in any mechanical sense, this course has in fact served as an integration of these fields. It is now proposed to inaugurate a similar project devoted to a study of certain aspects of western culture in the tenth grade. Teaching will be organized around broad themes as well as around problems closely related to contemporary life, but it will involve a historical development. The Horace Mann High School for Girls of Teachers College has organized the work of the seventh grade around problems of contemporary civilization. Other junior high schools, both public and private, are extending the principle of integration as I have defined it. Significant

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proposals are heard for integration in the senior high school, particularly in the twelfth grade. It is quite likely that in many senior high schools the problems in the American democracy course will be expanded to a study of American culture including the arts as well as politics, sociology, and economics. Such a course would serve as a fusion of the social sciences, English, and art.

Every critical student of secondary education knows that many values of the curriculum that should be made available to all boys and girls can never be made available under the conditions that prevail at the present time. A good example of this is found in the field of home economics. The home-economics courses with their attention to health problems, to the home, and to the economics of sociology of the family involve many values indispensable to the education either of boys or girls in the modern world. The only hope that these values may be made available to all lies in the introduction of courses that will cut across subject-matter fields, that will be organized around vital problems of contemporary life, and that will make possible the utilization of the most

modern methods of teaching. Alongside these integrated courses there will be made available undoubtedly, especially in the upper years of the high school, subject electives, but these subjects while of indispensable social and cultural value, *will be* electives. They will tend to drop out of the category of required courses and will be utilized to enable the individual to develop his own peculiar interests and capacities. In brief, the integrated courses should provide more effectively many of the values of general education, while the subject electives, especially in the upper years of the secondary school, should provide for the beginnings of specialization.

It is impossible to predict what the high-school curriculum will be in another decade. The present situation with its strange concoction of rigid formality and anarchy cannot much longer continue. Some kind of a reorganization must be effected. In the opinion of the writer, the tendencies which have been noted may become dominant trends in a few years. No other proposed solution of the difficulties seems so promising at the present time.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS IN AN EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The principal of the progressive Oak Lane Country Day School, of Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa., sets up some of the rules which must govern the administrator who would experiment. This is a helpful article from an experienced administrator. F.E.H.*

THE executive who is preparing to make radical changes in the traditional methods of conducting school programs or procedures must take into consideration a number of dynamic factors. Let us consider *seriatim* some of the problems which he might encounter should he attempt any curricular alteration of marked departure from known modes.

If the changes contemplated are of an experimental nature, the parents of the chil-

dren who are to enter the classes operated by trial and test must be thoroughly informed. This may necessitate individual conferences with each mother and father of the pupils represented in the experiment. It has been my experience that time given to a careful explanation of objectives and methods is well spent. Fathers and mothers do not like to think that the minds of their children are going to pass through a problematical operation. They are naturally solici-

itous of the mental welfare of their boys and girls. Parents are interested in the physical well-being of children but they are more wary about mental processes. The subtle wiles of the modern educator are to be questioned and brought to light. The ways of the physical processes are tangible and have become known in many past experiences, but new mental activity must be questioned, must be challenged. What will this experiment do to my boy? Will he love his God and his church when you are through with him? Will he have respect for law and order? Modern education has played at ducks and drakes with freedom, are you going to carry my son into an orgy of mental license? Let us know something of the appreciations and attitudes with which he will emerge from this venture. These are some of the misgivings which appear in the first conference.

There is also a fear of a lapse in scholastic attainment. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are still just as sacred to fathers and mothers as these subjects were to our ancestors. The executive may explain his experimental program again and again, and an unwarranted allegiance to the acquisition of facts and skills will be ever present. If the experimental class chances to review arithmetic in order to study processes for which achievement tests have revealed the necessity of attention, it is not an uncommon occurrence for a mother to deplore the fact that her son is studying page 63 in his book when the children of the same grade in a traditional class are working on page 163. A conference at this point is quite necessary. Sometimes it will take an hour with charts and graphs to convince the mother that her son is one year in advance of the traditional class in computation and in reasoning ability in mathematics. If the executive desires to continue his experiment he must give that hour patiently and cheerfully.

At the beginning of an experiment in public-school work it is sometimes necessary to

go to the homes with the exposition of the project in which the executive desires parental coöperation. This requires more patience and more consideration than the school conference. The office of the school lends dignity to the authority and to the wisdom of the superintendent or principal. The problem is reversed in the home. At school the parent by his presence has evidenced interest in the experiment. In the home the school representative is soliciting this interest. This plan, however, is sometimes worthy of the attempt, and may save a worth-while project.

It is easily observed from the exposition given above that the personal conference is given precedence over any program of written or printed matter. Too much care cannot be taken with the printed information which goes to magazines and newspapers. A great many experiments have failed because educators have used them for unwise publicity. At the beginning of a new project too much publicity is dangerous. The educator often discloses what he hopes to accomplish. At first it would appear that the plan would meet with no difficulties and that the attention directed towards the school would bring only pleasurable notoriety. It is when investigation reveals that results have not approached published assumptions that trouble comes to the administrator. Then he wishes that he had been more conservative in his predictions. It is so much easier to withhold this publicity until actual achievements may be accomplished. These are much more interesting than the plans and they are much more convincing.

When the administrator is considering a program of disseminating information he must not overlook the possibility of making contacts with the various civic and social organizations which may be interested in his experiment. Displays, plays, pageants, visiting days, and lectures should constantly be

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used. Enthusiastic interest in an experiment is always better than an uninformed invective.

After the informational aspect of the project has been considered the administrator should next direct his attention to the more intimate needs of his problem. I refer to the actual set-up of the experiment. Should a whole building be given to the promotion of the attempt, should it encompass the school population of an entire city, or should the experiment be confined to a few controlled classes? Either of the above plans would require a more lengthy discussion than the needs of this article require.

There are a few considerations, however, which are general enough to receive precautionary emphasis. The selection of the right teachers for the project is most necessary. One of the most needed attributes of teachers of experimental projects is the quality of confidence. The instructor must have had enough experience to be sure of himself. I do not mean that he must have a fixed or dogmatic mind. I refer to the confidence which has been established because of past successes. The old adage "Nothing succeeds like success" has more of truth than platitude in its content. Confidence in the outcome is necessary for results in any venture.

The characteristics of successful men and women are many and they are quite diversified. Some attributes are more predominant than others, but a number seem to thrust themselves like church steeples above the level of the mass. Open-mindedness, sympathy, self-control, superior intelligence, optimistic outlook, neatness in personal appearance, modesty of bearing, and broadness of vision are characteristics often encountered among folk who have achieved distinction. The imagination might expand either of these ideas mentioned above. All of these characteristics are important. Open-mindedness is the most difficult to find. This

attribute is not easily developed in teachers of experience. We become fixed so quickly, and so firmly. Perhaps our lives are too sheltered, held too much in the confines of library and campus. Travel, a wealth of contacts, a variegated spectrum of experiences, and an intimate knowledge of people and things are helpful. These may be the results rather than the concomitants of open-mindedness. Whatever they may be they are indispensable to the experiment which requires constant finesse in its guidance.

After the teachers have been selected the executive must shelter them from unwise invective. It is possible that some of the less successful members of the profession may give expression to criticisms stimulated by jealousy rather than by any constructive motives. This thought may seem a little harsh and ill timed. I mention it because experience has taught me that this precaution should receive due consideration. Teachers have always esteemed it an honor to be connected with important experiments. We are artists and the opportunity of trying out our professional dreams is sought with zest and enthusiasm. There are many applicants for every project of consequence. Some of those who do not succeed in receiving appointments for positions of interesting experimentation become supercritical of the achievements of those who are engaged in successful laboratory work. They cannot understand why they have failed, and instead of looking for merit in the efforts of their more fortunate friends they search assiduously for weak spots upon which they may give vent to acrid criticism. This may work havoc if it is injected into an experiment that has not yet evolved into an advanced stage. The executive must obviate this pessimism. He must bring to the endeavor the words of cheer and confidence which all participants must have. Many teachers wavering under the uncertainty

caused by continuous criticism may be encouraged to achieve splendid results if the administrator will but supplant cynical skepticism with hope and inspiration.

Most executives anticipate the precautions mentioned above, but many do not attach sufficient importance to my next item, namely, the necessity of supplying adequate facilities for the actual performance of the experiment. Supplies must be purchased. Adequate housing facilities must be provided. Books, so indispensable, and so often neglected, must be conveniently placed in all classrooms. Waste, of course, cannot be tolerated, but the original expenditures are certainly inexcusable if superior teachers are constantly fretting under the necessity of waiting for supplies or materials with which they desire to work.

Not only must teachers engaged in experimentation be given freedom of adequate facilities, they must also have freedom for original thinking. Possibilities for acting upon initiatives which come at inspired moments often lead to vistas which are caught from unusual points of the compass. Any project worthy of the name is not achieved by one individual. The complete project is a composite achievement. It is the summation of many ideas which have emerged from the maze of relations. Each mind engaged in the adventure has grasped the major aspects of the task but each individual mind has thrust out to reach a few remote relationships which were obscure to the remainder of the group. If freedom is given for this untrammelled exploration more rapid and more comprehensive effects will reward the administrator who bestows it.

When teachers are fortunate enough to obtain the facilities with which they desire to work and freedom for original creative endeavor they sometimes let their zest for achievement deprive them of a well-balanced forbearance. I refer to the necessity of patience. The chemist may measure effects

with dispatch. The farmer may select his seed corn with care, plant it, and in one season he may check results. The educator works with a medium far more intangible, far more subtle in reach, and much more difficult to control. He must be constantly cognizant of this fact. Early progress may seem imperative. He will become so eager to show definite evidences of marked advance towards his ideal that he may attempt to go forward too rapidly. Attitudes and emotions are not developed overnight. They must unfold slowly, imperceptibly. They require sympathetic care, and demand patient control. The experimenter must not look for immediate, tangible growth. He may place himself in the predicament of the enthusiastic agriculturalist who digs up his seeds to see how much they have developed. Progress may be discerned but life has been impaired in the inspection. The mistake must not be made. Patience must be exercised and creative results must be secured.

The effective results of any experimental endeavor must not only be accomplished, they must be made known. A school which is attempting any exploratory project will attract attention because of the venture, and will bring visiting educators to its doors. These visitors come to learn something of the new accomplishments which have been achieved, and they also desire to take new thoughts and new inspiration to the tasks in which they are engaged. In order that the experimental school may be of greater service to the profession, it is the duty of the administrator to give his visitors every consideration possible.

I visited a well-known experimental school not long ago. A student in the hall courteously conducted me to the office where I was received most cordially by the secretary of the principal. My visit had been arranged by letter and a most interesting schedule had been prepared for my entire day. The office force, the teachers, and the

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pupils made my stay a continuous series of pleasant and profitable experiences. The luncheon which I ate with the principal and the superintendent had the same quiet simplicity that was so evident in every department of the school. The institution has developed a facility for entertaining its visitors. It is interested in its guests and is eager to give them what they seek. It takes time for this service, time which might be considered too precious for obscure visitors by other institutions. Since the superintendent and the principal are nationally known, and since the institution is, in its own right, a model for the nation, this attention given to visitors is a consideration which might well be adopted as an indispensable criterion for all schools. A big school and big men have time for new friendships.

My ability as a host has never attained the standard which I observed in this institution, but it has always been my desire to emulate this example. I have had the responsibility of different types of experimental work for a number of years. During that time I have conducted many schoolmen through rooms in which classes were in session. These men might be divided into two groups, those who challenged the philosophy of the work and every detail of the procedure observed, and those who were in hearty accord with the plans and methods. The former are invaluable because they reveal to the innovator his glaring mistakes. These men of analytical minds quickly sense the superfluous aspects which enthusiastic teachers near the task frequently overlook. When placed on the defensive a reevaluation usually results, and the whole venture profits. The teacher not only drops the extraneous matter which his overzealous spirit grasped too quickly but, under the fire of criticism, he crystallizes his own philosophy in his defense.

The sympathetic guest is also helpful. He brings to the school the praise which is so

necessary to all pioneer endeavors. Some folk have the rare facility of sensing subtle values so often concealed beneath the surface mechanism of experimental procedure. When these values are given clarity and specific statement by those who are compelled to grasp hidden values from a cursory examination, the recompense of the teachers visited passes beyond the bounds of mere satisfaction.

Another form of disseminating the benefits which the profession might accrue from laboratory teaching is found in the books which are published by those engaged in the experimentation. Teachers should be encouraged to describe classroom experiences. Much of our professional literature has to do with philosophy and method. So much explains why, and how, and not what was done. We need more books like *Western Youth Meets Eastern Culture*, by Sweeny, Barry, and Schoelkopf, *Children and Architecture*, by Barnes and Young, and *Curriculum Making in an Elementary School*, by the Lincoln School staff. These publications have come from teachers who were engaged in pioneer work. The pages of these books are filled with practical, helpful directions for classroom instruction, and, better than this, their pages have described in interesting detail the many activities which actually took place.

The executive who is preparing to make radical changes in traditional methods of conducting school programs and procedures, then, should give attention to the following considerations: He should keep the parents thoroughly informed about the school life of their children, he should not engage in careless newspaper publicity, he must make a careful selection of teachers, he must provide these teachers with adequate facilities, he must give them freedom in thought and action, and he should make his institution a laboratory interesting and inspiring to those concerned with the cause of education.

CAN JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL LEARNING EXPERIENCES BE UNIFIED?

GERALD H. V. MELONE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The experiment here recounted was tried at John Burroughs School, St. Louis. A unified curriculum, with the general theme "The Background of Modern Civilization," has been used for three years. The results are apparently gratifying and the plan is being continued.*
F.E.H.

IN SOME of the educational writings of recent times there has appeared a growing and insistent demand for a more complete unification of the learning experiences to which boys and girls are subjected. As the emphasis in school procedure has changed from the furtherance of the interests of vested groups to the fullest realization of the possibilities of individual children, there has arisen, as a natural and logical consequence, the criticism concerning the artificiality of school programs as they have been planned and executed.

A recent book¹ by Dr. Rugg contains a plea for this integration of learning. "If youth is to comprehend American life as a whole," he says, "we must make a sound synthesis of knowledge and make it the basis of the entire school curriculum. The conventional barriers between the existing school subjects must be ignored. The starting point shall be the needs of the self, and understanding of social institutions and political form as the organizing themes of the school program."

In a similar vein, Dr. Gray of the University of Pittsburgh discusses² the relation of modern theories of biology to behavior. Briefly stated his argument is as follows: "The behaving organism is never less than the whole. Learning cannot be restricted to changes in the nervous system only. In organic behavior all parts of the machine are involved and learning must concern the alteration of the mechanical whole." Then Dr. Gray indicates what he thinks is the educa-

tional interpretation of this theory. He says, "It is new to experiment on the basis that the organism behaves as a unified whole rather than as a collection of lesser behaving units. Both the technique of experimentation and the interpretation of results will need to be altered to conform with this newer point of view. The experimenter must constantly keep in mind that the organism is a functional whole."

The idea of unification is likewise implied in the psychological trends towards a "psychology of wholeness." If intelligence does mean adaptation to new circumstances, then this power of adapting, which means reconstructing experiences, is of much importance in human life. The new psychology views the individual as an entity or whole, and not as a group of more or less detached elements. This has important consequences for education. Dr. Raup has recently called attention to the changing view of the nature of the learner and of the learning process.³ The learner under a unified system is not the learner of the more traditional methods. His psychological nature is different. He is a being of whole, unanalyzed events; for him life consists in preserving and enriching such whole events. The logic-ridden mind gives way to a psychologically functioning mind; the overintellectualized person must give way to the person with whole-hearted experiences. The learner as a receptive vessel is supplanted by the learner as a dynamic, unique, reorganizing agency in a world of things and persons.

Similar appeals for a new synthesis of knowledge appear in the writings of James

¹ Harold O. Rugg, *Culture and Education in America* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company), 1931.

² "The Biological Review of Organic Behavior," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, September 1931, pp. 462-470.

³ W. Boyd, *Towards a New Education* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf), 1930, p. 398.

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Harvey Robinson in his *Mind in the Making*, in Bowman's *The New World*, in Beard's *Rise of American Civilization*, and in Lippmann's *Public Opinion*. In the field of university education there have been tendencies in the direction of greater unification, notable examples being the experimental college at the University of Wisconsin and the new organization of colleges at the University of Chicago.

There is, therefore, justification for the planning of some unification of learning experiences which finds its basis in other than practical considerations. Educational theories, practical biology, and modern psychological beliefs seem to indicate that some solution must be discovered to make learning experiences conform to the unified nature of human responses.

Perhaps no level of school activities has felt the need of this unification more than the junior high school. As the junior high school became less and less like the elementary school or the high school, and began to assume unique characteristics of its own, there was developed a wide range of offerings, which had exploratory value, but which were so distinct from each other that pupils were frequently lost in a maze of jumbled impressions. It became quite possible for a boy or girl to pass through a school day, jumping at the sound of a gong from one class to another, without realizing that the activities of two class periods had relationship to each other. The resultant must have been confusion in the minds of the pupils who were encountering such experiences day by day. Personal observation of the results of such procedure showed that such conditions frequently did exist. There was failure to grasp relationships and much less thoroughness of results than one might reasonably have expected from junior-high-school instruction.

With these problems and ideas in mind, the staff of the John Burroughs School in

St. Louis set for itself the task of attempting to put into practice a unified curriculum. Previous to this attempt various other solutions had been proposed and put into operation in order to achieve the legitimate objectives of junior-high-school education and yet to avoid the difficulties that seemed inherent in a scattered program. Among the devices made use of were those of double periods, free activity periods, and rather elaborate correlation between departments. Such plans seemed to make some improvement, but there was a conviction on the part of the school staff that desirable as these devices were, they were, at best, make-shift arrangements. The necessity of the situation finally brought together instructors from all departments—English, science, social studies, fine arts, dramatics, languages, practical arts, music—to attempt the solution, which, it was thought, could best be found in establishing a unified curriculum.

Various problems were encountered at once. Among the major ones which had to be considered were these: (1) How can children's learning experiences be so unified that there will be a recognition of the relationship of all their work in the various subjects? (2) How can the subject content be so unified as to contribute to a common end? (3) How can unification of materials be achieved in all departments so as to provide for the development of the necessary skills of learning, for the proper adjustment to environment, and for the drawing out of creative capacities? The discussion of these various aspects of the problem led to the decision that unification should come through the selection of a large general topic that would be rich enough in content to make possible contributions from all departments and at the same time significant enough as to provide learning experiences that would be truly educative. It was finally decided that this general topic should deal with the development of man in his ever

expanding control over the things of the world—a story of the widening of his horizon, both geographical and mental. Sometimes the problem has been stated in this way: "How has man made nature serve him?"

The general outline of the scope of this material has undergone revision during the period in which the unified plan has been followed. As it enters upon its third year the following summary indicates the nature of the units and the teaching topics that have been devised.

PART I. THE BACKGROUND OF MODERN CIVILIZATION

- Unit I.* Looking Over Modern Civilization (an introductory survey)
- Unit II.* How the Earth Began and Grew
 Topic 1. A Peep into Space
 Topic 2. The Beginnings of the Sun-Family
 Topic 3. Forces at Work upon the Earth
 Topic 4. The Early History of the Earth
- Unit III.* The Coming of Man
 Topic 1. The First Men
 Topic 2. The Problems of Early Man and How He Solved Them (food, shelter, weapons, dress, transportation, tools, utensils)
 Topic 3. Mr. Early Man Begins to Organize and Control (family, property, domestication of plants and animals, fire, government, language, numbers)
 Topic 4. Mr. Early Man Begins to Express Himself (art, music, religion)
- Unit IV.* First Steps in Civilization
 Topic 1. How Mr. Early Man Passed from Savagery to Civilization
 Topic 2. The Cradle of Civilization in the Near East
 Topic 3. The Cradle of Civilization in the Far East
- Unit V.* The Spread of Civilization
 Topic 1. Man's Urge to Explore
 Topic 2. Aids to Exploration

- Topic 3. The Phoenicians as Spreaders of Civilization
 Topic 4. Traders between Asia and Europe
 Topic 5. The Viking Sailors
- Unit VI.* New Ideas Come to Europe
 Topic 1. The Crusades and Europe's Awakening
 Topic 2. The Arabian Conquests
- Unit VII.* European Life in the Days Before the Machine
 Topic 1. How the People Lived
 Topic 2. How the People Worshipped
 Topic 3. How the People Controlled Their Life (inventions, medicine, alchemy, agriculture)

PART II. THE MODERN WORLD

- Unit VIII.* The Modern World Begins
 Topic 1. The Old Scholastics and the New Scientists
 Topic 2. The Great Awakening (Renaissance)
 a) In literature
 b) In art
 c) In business
 Topic 3. Men Go Exploring
 Topic 4. The Golden Age
 a) In England—the days of Queen Elizabeth
 b) In France—the days of Louis XIV
- Unit IX.* A New World Is Settled
 Topic 1. Europeans Settle in America
 Topic 2. Life in the New World
- Unit X.* The Machine Age Begins (Industrial Revolution)
 Topic 1. New Methods of Making Cloth
 Topic 2. The Machine Age Moves to America
 Topic 3. Cloth Making Becomes a Big Business
- Unit XI.* New Transportation Devices and the Westward Movement
 Topic 1. Changes in Land and Water Transportation
 Topic 2. How the Middle West Was Settled
 Topic 3. The Coming of the Railroads
 Topic 4. Settling the Far West
 Topic 5. The Agricultural Revolution
 Topic 6. The Automobile Arrives
 Topic 7. Man Takes to the Air

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Unit XII. Modern Industry

- Topic 1. Studies of Industries (including group study of leather industry in its relation to St. Louis)

Unit XIII. New Communication Devices

- Topic 1. The New Electrical Devices
Topic 2. Effects of the New Devices

Unit XIV. Modern Business

- Topic 1. How Money Developed
Topic 2. How "Big Business" Developed
Topic 3. Interdependence of Modern Life

Unit XV. Modern Ways of Thinking and Feeling

- Topic 1. Scientific Ideas That Have Changed Thought
Topic 2. The New Literature
Topic 3. Changes in the Field of Drama
Topic 4. Modern Life as Seen in Modern Art
Topic 5. Modern Life as Heard in Modern Music

The administration of the unified program is as follows. In each grade there is a chairman of the unified course committee, who acts as general director for the work of his group. At necessary times he meets with teachers and pupils in making plans for the further development of the study. This chairman is usually a teacher who is sharing fully in the development of the unified program. One of the phases of the work which these grade chairmen have agreed upon is a systematic procedure for the planning of the program which is the same throughout the entire unified course. This procedure involves these steps: (1) statement of unit headings, (2) statement of teaching topics, (3) statement of problems involved in a topic, (4) statement of learning cores, (5) listing of learning experiences, (6) testing program, (7) materials, (8) teaching procedure. This plan, it is believed, will contribute to the pupil's feeling of unity in the various stages of his study.

In the daily program approximately one

third of the day is devoted directly to the work of the unified course. Some of the remaining time in the day is devoted definitely to the acquiring of certain necessary techniques that require systematic development, but as the teachers involved in these periods are the same ones who contribute to the unified program, there is a close connection between the work done in the so-called "technique periods" and that done in the unified course. Many of the special periods are merely extensions of the unified program.

The principle which has guided the actual administration of the course has been that of utilizing the department or departments which are best fitted to render service at a particular time. The nature of the material determines what teachers and how many shall be directly involved in aiding the actual teaching of the material. At times one or two teachers may be working with a specific group; at other times, five or six teachers may aid the learning experiences in connection with the development of a certain phase of the work. It is apparent, of course, that the program must be kept flexible in order to make possible that teachers be available when needed. The difficulties are not insurmountable, however. With the grade chairmen keeping in close contact with the development of the various phases of the study and anticipating needs, it has been found possible to achieve this flexibility even with a comparatively small staff.

One or two illustrations may serve to make clearer the workings of the unified plan. One group introduced its study of the "modern world" through the solving of the general problem, "What kind of a world do I live in?" The search for the answer to such a problem led out into many various fields of activity. When the pupils noted changes in school life, changes in styles of dress, changes in automobile models, there was laid the basis for the conclusion that ours is a changing world. When they examined

menus and noted sources of news in newspapers, they discovered examples of the interdependence of our modern world. When they planned a model kitchen with up-to-date aids they drew new conclusions as to the part invention and power devices play in modern life. A study of machines which make life easier, which give us leisure time, which save our time, and which help to amuse us led to an actual realization of the meaning of the term, "the machine age." These, and other activities, made use of the guidance and assistance of the teachers of many departments. The learning experiences, too, were varied, involving as they did investigation, collecting, reading, reporting, writing, thinking, constructing, and drawing. Finally, each pupil demonstrated how far he had gone in the solution of the main problem through the use of a mastery test dealing with the "learning cores" upon which the study was based. In this particular unit the following "learning cores" had been prepared as essential basic understandings of the unit:

What kind of a world do I live in?

1. Our world is a changing world; and is also the result of change.
2. There has been a great increase in the dependence of people upon other people in our world.
3. The horizon of interest today is world-wide.
4. Even the geographic boundaries of our world are new.
5. Almost everything we use or do today depends in some way upon mechanical power.
6. In our own American world there is a high standard of living.
7. Much of our standard of living is due to mechanical power.
8. Most of the things we have are made by machines.
9. Our living is improved because electric power can be carried long distances.

In another phase of the study pupils were endeavoring to learn about life in Europe as it was in the days before the machine. Some of the questions which naturally arose

were: "What did they read? Did they go to plays? What were their schools like? How did they make the things they needed? How did they farm? Did they go to church?" The answers to these questions, and many others, required the assistance of many teachers. A teacher of English directed the study of literature and introduced in a most natural setting the reading of ballads and of romances, and a study of manuscripts. A teacher of drama did the same for mystery and miracle plays. The social-studies teachers contributed to a better knowledge of Middle-Age schools, and the art teacher helped the pupils to get an understanding of gothic art. The practical-arts teachers, together with the social-studies teachers, led the pupils into a study of work life in the pre-machine days, and the science teacher helped the boys and girls to perform some of the experiments of the medieval alchemists and also to get a grasp of the kind of thinking done during that period. The music teacher likewise shared in the development of the study. During this time the pupils' activities included reading of various kinds, writing of the imaginative type and the writing of reports, construction activities in several phases of practical arts, experimenting in the laboratory, and many others.

At the beginning of this article we set up the query: "Can junior-high-school learning experiences be unified?" Both theory and practical considerations seem to point in the direction of greater unification of such learning experiences, but the need is not the only factor involved. There must also be the possibility of attainment. This attainment, we believe, is possible. The difficulties are great, and not the least is the entrenched position of vested subject-matter interests in the school curriculum. Unification is not likely to meet with much favor or much success if logical order of separate subjects is placed above the integrated learning experience of an individual learner. The problem of keep-

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ing a program flexible so that pupils may have access to the desired teachers at the desired time is a difficult one, but probably not impossible of solution. A third problem of great magnitude is that of really achieving a genuine unified or integrated program. There is probably a fundamental relationship between all human activity; unfortunately, few people are able to put the

pattern together into a well-synthesized whole.

Education is one phase of human experience, however, that should never be deterred from attempting a desirable procedure simply because it is difficult. It is worth while to bring pupils into a finer idea of the unity of human experience, and the procedure will be discovered.

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HENRY COURTENAY FENN

EDITOR'S NOTE: "Until every teacher, regardless of subject, makes it one of his prime objectives to check and guide the student in the practice of good English, we must continue to graduate children who can speak correctly when they have to, but will not do so habitually," writes Mr. Fenn of the Oak Lane Country Day School. F.E.L.

THE real reasons for this little study in integration were two. First, at least in order of actual experience, was the conviction that English should cease to be taught as a separate subject and should assume its proper and more truly worthy function of tool and servant of all learning. English, it seems to me, is in the position of one of those factotums more common in English than in American families, an integral and essential part of the family with which he is connected, indispensable in any major family activity. A second conviction followed closely on the heels of the first: If English is essentially a tool, and by analogy mathematics must then also be reckoned as a tool, then the real cores of life experiences are drawn chiefly from two sources—the physical environment and the social environment—and consequently the physical sciences and social studies should be the focuses of the entire curriculum.

These convictions were not as easily arrived at as the telling might lead one to sup-

pose, nor will they be readily accepted by all readers. Some part of the reasoning process must be offered.

It was not difficult to arrive at the conclusion that formal instruction in English usage was, to a large extent, wasted, as long as students "got away with" very careless ways of speaking and writing in every class but English. Until every teacher, regardless of subject, makes it one of his prime objectives to check and guide the student in the practice of good English, we must continue to graduate children who can speak correctly when they have to but will not do so habitually. The habits formed in the English room are dropped when they go to the next class and never become firmly fixed.

It is even more obvious that oral English, whether it be in the form of mere classroom recitation or in the shape of public speaking or debate, can be taught quite as easily in connection with other studies as in an English class; for any recitation is a good place to practise correct usage and no subject offers better materials for public speaking of all kinds than the social studies.

It was when I thought of the creative side

¹ One unit of an integrated course in world history and English on the senior-high-school level with a partial correlation of art, music, and other subjects.

of writing and the aesthetic side of literature that I had my first qualms. Would I dare to trust a subject not primarily concerned with the appreciation and creation of literary beauty to draw creative expression from the children from whom I had had most gratifying poems and stories and plays? There was more than a moment of hesitation. Perhaps I felt something like a parent about to commit his "come-of-age" offspring to the cold, cold world. Then came the thought that in that cold, cold world—whose experiences we are trying to give the child vicariously or in miniature during his school years—the physical environment is ready made, the social environment is largely ready made, but there exists no ready-made environment of literary appreciation and creation. That is something which the average citizen builds or determines for himself. His reading will be in part determined by the factors in his physical and social environments. He will read the books which explain to him the problems of his environments and those which happen to appeal to him. If he writes at all he will seek stimulus and appreciation by voluntary association with like-minded spirits.

Poets have drawn inspiration from nature as long as poets have sung. Given a little more emphasis on appreciation of nature and a little less on its analysis, a science course could easily inspire to poetry. And where in the world are there better materials for play writing than in the field of history and man's relation with his fellowman? They *are* drama. Story writing can spring from almost any source and the essay has long been little more than a tool for the conveying of ideas of all sorts.

Why, then, should not the children who are not likely to do really creative writing get their more limited experience in correct expression in closer administrative connection with the fields from which they are likely to draw their materials, while the ones who

are more creatively inclined derive their stimulus from a voluntary club, such as they may someday form or join in real life?

The history of literature always should have been in practice what it is by nature, an integral part of the history of civilization. Out of that natural setting it loses a colorful background and fails to make its contribution to the understanding of the civilization of which it is so essential a part.

If language is essentially a medium of expression to be used in connection with any and all experiences of life, then the same is equally true of art and music. Each is a language and a tool. But while each may be used to subserve some ulterior purpose, each may also aim at that pure beauty which we know as art for art's sake. If we turn to mathematics we find it the indispensable tool of the physical sciences and a very handy aid in the social studies, especially where they deal with economic factors.

Such considerations almost inevitably raise the question in one's mind whether the real cores of our life situations are not, in every case, made up of factors from our physical environment, or from our social environment, or from both. And if the answer is in the affirmative, as the promoters of this experiment are now convinced it is, then does it not follow that a child's education should center around activities drawn from these two sources? Put briefly, education should be the best possible preparation to deal with the problems of the two environments, physical and social; primary and secondary education naturally have to confine themselves very largely to introducing the student to the tools available and guiding him to a sense of how to use those tools.

In our most advanced educational journals we read nowadays about the possibilities of a unified curriculum in the secondary school. On the primary-school level, the unified curriculum is already an accomplished

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fact in several progressive institutions. This means that all of the subject-matter barriers are down and the child's school experiences are organized around life situations into which selected bits from the subject-matter compartments are brought as tools or aids in understanding. Drills are still retained for the mastery of skills, but even skills are largely functionalized. Whether this sort of thing is possible on the secondary-school level or not—and it obviously is not possible in large public schools, until some of the smaller and freer institutions have taken the lead and experimented with it—it seems to me that the next step for most secondary schools is in the direction of integrating the teaching of certain subject-matter elements. This is feasible with very little adjustment of schedules or curriculum and leads to an understanding of the problems to be solved in the more complete unification of the curriculum, should experimentation prove that to be desirable.

The fields that seemed most promising for experiment in integration were those of English and social studies. English is the main tool in social studies. Opportunities for written and oral English are plentiful. Much creative expression has been inspired by the materials of history if we are to judge by the recurrence of the historical note in our best poets. The history of literature is part of the history of civilization. Literature contains the history of civilization. What would be more natural than a blending of the two!

Following in the large Dr. Morrison's principles for the organization of units of learning rather than units of subject matter, we proceeded to determine the understandings which we felt it desirable for the student to reach as a result of his studies in the social-studies field on the senior-high-school level. After much listing, sorting, and grouping of desirable learnings, a tentative program for three years' work was drawn up as follows:

First year—10th Grade

Unit I—Man has at his disposal a wide range of media through which he may express his thoughts, feelings, and experiences.

Unit II—Cultural progress is the result of development of the use of these media and sharing with other individuals and groups.

Second year—11th Grade

Unit I—Man's conquest of geographical barriers and his utilization of natural forces and resources have caused changes in conditions and standards of living.

Unit II—The basic problem of organized society is the development of adequate social controls without unduly curbing individual freedom.

Third year—12th Grade

Unit I—Man's aesthetic standards, expressed in such fields as art, architecture, music, and literature, have varied with time and place and show adaptation to changing needs.

Unit II—Man's changing interpretation of the meaning of life shows a trend away from the ignorant fear of the forces of nature and towards an intelligent cooperation with them.

To date, the experiment has not passed beyond the first unit of the first year's work, which may be briefly referred to as "media of expression." Five distinct media were taken up separately, language, bodily motion, music, art and architecture, and mathematical symbols. Drama offers a means of bringing together in varying proportions all of these media, so it was used as the integrating study of the unit.

The classroom process began in each sub-unit with an exploratory test of the objective type to ascertain with what background understanding each student approached the study. It was quite evident from the test that some members of the group would proceed more slowly than others; but provision had been made for such a situation by giving the quicker workers opportunity to go more deeply into some of the exercises, to do more illustrating of their notebooks, or to undertake voluntary work of a more crea-

tive type. There followed a preview of the study to be made, usually mimeographed and given out for reading after an oral presentation by the teacher presiding over that particular subunit. Discussion followed. The class was then ready to attack the "guide sheet" of assimilation exercises, the result of which should be the attainment of the understandings formulated in the original statement of the unit. Some of these exercises called for individual thought or research; others were best approached by class discussion. Some drew written exposition; others induced artistic work and much illustrative material was embodied in a "log" kept from day to day to record the student's progress through assimilation exercises. The subunit naturally closed with a post-test to measure in some degree the progress of the student towards the understandings desired.

Administrative difficulties made it seem advisable that one teacher direct the year's work; but no one teacher was equipped to handle a series of subunits covering so wide a range as the six media of language, bodily motion, music, art, mathematical symbols, and the drama. Consequently specialists in each field were invited to coöperate in presenting and guiding the subunits with which they were most intimately concerned. There was no lack of coöperation. The specialists not only spent much time in preparing previews and assimilation exercises, but came into class and directed the process of working out the problems set. From the start the students have evinced the most acute interest in the study and the method of handling it. Throughout its course they have worked with a will, often doing far more work than required, especially in the way of artistic embellishment of their notebooks. In addition to these general reac-

tions, it is now evident from the results of a final objective test at the end of the entire unit that the group as a whole has made clear progress along the following lines:

1. There is a genuine appreciation of the fact that man has at his disposal a varied assortment of media for the expression of his ideas, feelings, and experiences.

2. By discussing somewhat analytically the more specialized fields, such as art and music, the students have come to a realization that even in these fields the average man may both attain an appreciation of the works of others and gratify his own inner urge to self-expression to a much greater extent than is commonly thought possible.

3. They see the peoples of the world differentiated by their varying use of the media of expression but bound together by the universality of the language of most of these media and the enjoyment of each other's cultural products.

4. They understand better the interrelation of the media and the possibilities of using them in combination, especially in the more elaborate forms of dramatic production.

5. In the process of reaching these understandings and appreciations they have acquired a degree of skill in searching for information, in organizing materials, in expressing themselves in clear, correct, and concise English, both oral and written.

Let it be repeated that this is an experiment in process. It is in no sense finished; it is hardly begun. The tale of its beginnings and earliest results is offered merely as encouraging to such others contemplating or carrying out similar experiments looking towards an enrichment of the curriculum through the integration of the learning experiences we are offering children.

CREATIVE INTEGRATION

EMILY FANNING BARRY
The Lincoln School

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Here is an experiment which started with social science as a core, but which included every activity which the class could use to develop the original idea. The author believes that an integrated program in English, art, and social studies offers a satisfying experience to children.*
F.E.H.

A NOTED composer of symphonies once had a rather unusual ambition. He wished to create a temple of arts and to write music which would be played only under certain conditions. For every composition he would have the lights change their color according to the mood of the music. He would have exquisite dancers move in rhythmic pantomime, and in the same spirit he would give odors to the atmosphere. Thus through a synthesis of the senses contributive and integrative values might be disclosed.

Integration is not a new or unfamiliar term. But in the educative vocabulary it hath a more sober sound and a deeper tone. To such subjects as English, social studies, and art, it comes rightfully into its function, although in its ramifications the process of integration may be even more far-reaching.

We of the Lincoln School of Teachers College had not been entirely content with the accomplishment of our first-year high-school pupils. We knew the absurdity of expecting the attainment of the same standards for all, or a like degree of success for every individual, "because of the limitations and predispositions of pupils and students, one having the gift for truth, another for learning, another for creative production, and the many having no special gifts whatsoever."¹ And yet we were not satisfied that the challenge of the seventh grade had been adequately met. Were there too many centers of interest? Was the stimulation too diversified and diffuse to be effective as these

youngsters found their way from one room to another and from one teacher to the next? Was there sufficient concentration on the many problems these pupils were asked to solve? Why was it so difficult to inculcate good working habits? Should there be less competition and more contemplation, less talking and more thinking and doing? These questions and many others had been queried in open discussion, but no one felt sure of the answers.

In the fall of 1928, therefore, at least one group of unsuspecting children encountered a newly planned and somewhat different régime. The experimental set-up had been agreed upon in advance, so that three teachers, each a specialist in the respective fields of art, social studies, and English, might be enabled to carry out a new synthesis of materials in a coöperative teaching experiment. The new seventh graders were to meet with tripled resistance and guidance.

Since intelligent experimentation should set forth at least a few rational ideas concerning its intentions and indicate some objectives which it expects to achieve, those teachers initiating this experiment in integration had entered into tentative articles of faith and had set forth certain definite goals.

We were aware that integration must take place in a twofold manner—first in regard to the materials themselves, and second, in relation to the learner. It was incumbent upon the teachers to investigate, rearrange, and present materials in such manner that the relationships become evident and the association of ideas apparent to the learner at the proper time. Resultant activity from the pupil himself must then indicate that within

¹ Henry Fairfield Osborn, *Creative Education in School, College, University, and Museum* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), 1927, p. 196.

the mind of the learner unified impressions or coalescence of ideas had been consummated. It will be seen at once that integration is a somewhat more complex process than correlation. Social studies because of its scope and continuity should provide the central core for the experiment, around and through which the other subjects would achieve their functions. Thus, integration might be achieved through a design concentric in nature around a central theme towards which and through which contributory learnings would move and perform their duties. These learnings should not be merely supplementary but of worth-while merit in and of themselves.

Having discovered that their individual philosophies disclosed no conflicts with the general plan for integration, the teachers then determined upon criteria for selection and evaluation of the material to be used or the culture to be studied. The criteria are briefly stated: (1) The content must be of social significance. From the numerous cultures that may be studied, it is essential to select those that are of importance in showing the growth of ideas and ideals that are fundamental to the understanding of present-day problems and institutions. (2) The content must be within the comprehension of the children in the grade in which it is taught. (3) The content must be broad enough in scope, and rich and varied enough in experience to provide and stimulate a creative outlet for all children. (4) The content must furnish opportunity for cumulative growth on increasingly higher levels of achievement. (5) The content must provide opportunity for intensifying and amplifying the aesthetic elements.

It was thought that world cultures chosen in accordance with these criteria would, by their very nature and variety, provide for practice in the skills. The amount of drill would necessarily be determined by the needs and abilities of any group.

That English with its aesthetic elements, its emotional tone, and its social significance both as tool and art might contribute in maximum degree to an integrated program, it must necessarily relinquish certain traditional notions. That art might best function in an integrated experience, it too must help solve everyday problems with everyday materials. And that the social studies might utilize the contributions available through these channels, the gates must be held ajar to admit not only the material achievements of a people as shown by their economic status, their control over their physical environment, their progress in science and invention, but also the less tangible factors—such as the ideas and ideals of a people that have found expression in their literature and art.

No doubt that first eager-toned assemblage of boys and girls entering into the experimental procedure was somewhat abashed by the extravagance of teachers present in one classroom. To the right or to the left, before and aft, a teacher of social studies, or English, or of art! The children had but one recourse and were quick to take advantage of whatever compensations the situation offered. They lowered their defenses and entered into the adventure.

Since social studies had been selected as the core, it was necessary for the teacher of that subject to begin the work with the boys and girls by building with them the needed background of content. Almost simultaneously literature added its imaginative concept.

A plan of procedure was reached by the trial and error method. In the beginning, each of the three subjects was given a definite time—four hours a week for English, four for social studies, and two for art. But gradually one subject yielded to one of the others when more time was needed to complete a certain phase and, finally, all three sometimes functioned in multiple capacities

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over a two- or three-week period. If it seemed best to give the children a longer period for writing or for working on a particular problem in social studies or art, a time adjustment was made. Sometimes a two-hour period of consecutive work yielded results that could not have been attained in several shorter working periods, for frequently much was gained by concentration on a given problem over a longer time. In other words, flexibility in thought and in program were found necessary to the most satisfactory development of the study. Not only did the teachers lose sight of the subject boundaries and time schedules, but the boys and girls went freely to any one of the three teachers with their questions, whether to ask help with a line of verse, to inquire about the customs of a people, or to ask what color to use in an illustration. When these questions could not be answered, they were referred to the special teacher in the field; and, needless to say, teachers as well as students acquired much new information.

An important problem was that of finding suitable materials of instruction. Quite obviously no one textbook met all the needs and the solution lay in securing adequate library equipment. The plan as actually carried out was to secure a few books of known value and then to add to the list from time to time as additional books or magazine articles were found.

While no formal technique was developed for the teaching within a given unit, experience showed that it was advantageous to plan quite definitely certain periods or steps in the procedure. For our own convenience these intervals or periods were designated by the terms "orientation," "special activities," and "summarization." There were no sharp divisions between the phases of the work; sometimes they overlapped, sometimes they paralleled each other in execution, but always one phase grew out of the preceding one. Explanation of these terms follows.

The word "orientation" was thought the most descriptive term available to explain that period in which the general classwork was initiated; namely, "the orienting of the child in selected spheres of socially significant cultures." Such orientation was achieved only when the children shared in many and diverse experiences. When the theme was one centering about life in the immediate environment, it was possible to participate in experiences first hand; but when a study treated of remote places on the earth or of ages past, it became necessary to live in that environment through the media of books, pictures, objects, or talks, motion pictures and slides, and every possible means which might be helpful in making that other civilization real and alive.

Visits to the museums were planned with definite needs and ends in view: to study old manuscripts or maps, to look upon models or reproductions of natural and historic settings, or to behold the art of a particular people down through the ages.

Interspersed with group discussions were laboratory periods when class time was allotted for studying problems raised in class. It was then that the boys and girls gathered their facts from many sources, constructed the necessary maps and charts, and found time to do their collateral reading. On a specially reserved shelf of the school library additional books for extensive reading were placed. These laboratory periods were of relatively short duration at this time, rarely exceeding two or three consecutive class hours. Experience showed that in this initial stage shorter periods followed by discussions were more beneficial than protracted work and no discussion.

In the early stages of the orientation period the work in art deliberately lagged behind that of English and social studies. The reason for this is quite evident when one considers how difficult it often is to understand the art of a nation unless one has an

underlying appreciation of the civilization that produced it. The more highly symbolic the art, the more important this prerequisite of background. Rather than introduce the children prematurely to that which they were unprepared to understand, sufficient time was allowed them during which to acquire an adequate background for interpretation. Once possessed of it, the boys and girls were eager and anxious to delve into problems peculiar to art, but often stimulated by or originating in the other fields. Art activities then paralleled English and social studies. Since activities of varied types were characteristic of the unit as a whole, it is perhaps a misnomer to designate the period following orientation as that of "special activities"; but again, there seems to be no better descriptive term. At this time each child selected for his individual project the particular phase of the unit in which he was most interested. The leads for these special interest problems usually came out of the discussions in social studies, but in the actual carrying out of the plans, the work invariably penetrated into many fields. Facts, ideas, relationships, all clamored for expression in the activities of these adolescent boys and girls. New meanings were forming, new combinations in greater degrees of complexity crowded the pupil's experience as he strove for adequate media of expression. At times, words and sentences served his purpose, while at others, they failed ignominiously. For some, hands and feet were more articulate than words, and the rhythm of accomplishment bubbled over into the art of dancing, of music, or of the paint brush, or of yet more sturdy implements, the hammer and saw. The sum and substance of the special-activities period had a fundamental relation to life, and in this way individual aptitudes and interests were fostered and tended and given an opportunity to grow.

Boys and girls were encouraged to try out various media rather than limit their

expression to one form. Those who invariably chose to construct in the shop were urged to write; while those who preferred writing reports or even imaginative articles were sometimes requested to construct. Guidance of a more personal nature was evidenced when the child who consistently worked alone was gradually induced to join with another, while the natural group leader was at times called upon to work alone.

After a given period of time, ordinarily two or three weeks, the children presented to the class their completed products. Since all had shared in those early stages of development of the unit, the orientation activities, there was ready a well-informed and eager audience who listened attentively, and commended or criticized in intelligent fashion.

The final stage of development lasted at least two weeks and often longer. It was devoted to various forms of summaries, the nature of which changed from time to time and from unit to unit. Sometimes, formal class summaries were constructed from topics and suggestions given by the pupils. These outline summaries, although productive of the unit as a whole, originated in the social-studies class.

A group summary, stimulated through the study of India and the reading of *Kim*, had its conception and completion in the art room. The result was an India print showing the tree of life set in a border symbolizing animal worship. The children planned the design, divided the labor, and executed the pattern according to their findings and feelings. Sometimes, another form of summary, drawing unto itself all the good offices of the social activities as well as those of art, was initiated in the English class. One such memorable accomplishment was a Chinese play done in the Chinese fashion. Though of more informal type, it combined summarization of knowledge with creative activity. Music *à la Chinois*, stage conventions, costumes, postures, and symbolism—

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these and many more details gave occasion for research, and perhaps in no other way was the efficacy of integration so well demonstrated.

Stories, the length of which varied from three hundred words to three thousand, were also a part of the culminating activities of each study. Tradition and environment became usable to children in these quaint and sometimes very serious tales which they told. The writings began and ended in the classroom. A few periods were devoted to a discussion of plot, characterization, and the use of background. Each child decided for himself what would be the predominating feature of his story. During writing hours the teachers gave general assistance, cleared away doubts and answered questions, spelled difficult words or aided in punctuating trying sentences. Information was checked by the pupils through available sources such as dictionaries, texts, magazines, and maps in the classroom, in the library, or art room. Informality prevailed but work continued, since all children were subject to the same time limit agreed upon in advance. Such working habits operating in the realm of creative writing are not customary in the ordinary classroom. However, in the integrated program through virtue of the relationship between English and the social studies, a proper regard was instilled for fact and for time and space relations so that even highly imaginative writing profited.

When all the stories were completed, each child was given the chance to read his story before the class. Enthusiasm and even excitement marked these hours. The appreciation was real, the criticism plentiful, and the interest keen.

Often children who had created original writings wished to preserve them in appropriate form. All art knowledge of the period was called upon to assist in the solution of the problem. Serious consideration was given to designs and illustrations that they

might be suitable; great care was exercised in the selection of materials and types of bindings that the integrity of the product might not be violated.

Two important living cultures, the Euro-American and the Oriental, were chosen for the first experiments in integration. No study has evoked more interest or more enthusiastic response than that on the Far East which was introduced by the seventh graders themselves. Leaving reluctantly a study of medieval life, they traveled quite by chance with Marco Polo to far Cathay, where they too became filled with wonder at the narrative of that Venetian traveler of the thirteenth century. From many voices came the inquiry, "Why did the East of that time have a civilization which far outdistanced that of the West?" Eager to see and hear more of that ancient and exotic land, the group entered upon a study of China.

In order to illustrate in more detail the approach, background work, and activities of an orientation period, the following excerpt is reprinted, with omissions, from a more detailed account of the experiences in the book *Western Youth Meets Eastern Culture*.²

How do these people live? How have they lived in the past? What are their standards of ethics? What is true of their aesthetic life? What is true of their economic life? How do their conceptions of a high type of civilization compare with those of the western world? What are their ideas of personal liberty and justice? How has the physical environment affected the lives of the people? How did European nations secure control of territory in China? These and other significant questions formed the framework upon which the structure was erected. When historical backgrounds had to be built, they were treated as such with due attention paid to chronology, and the tracing of large movements. In other words, "What the Far East has been" was studied to understand "What the Far East is."

Here one could trace the development of

² Sweeney, Barry, and Schoelkopf, *Western Youth Meets Eastern Culture* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University), 1932.

an ancient civilization over a long stretch of time, showing how that civilization had come to be what it was in the European Middle Ages, and opening a broad field for exploration and discussion; namely, how the civilization of the East affected that of the West; how it came to be that the type of civilization developed in the Western world gained dominance over that of the Eastern world; how in the modern world the "old" and "new" are in conflict in the East; and how the civilization of the East may contribute to that of the West.

As the need for more detailed information grew, histories were consulted in order that the development of important movements might be traced. Constant recurrence of such names as "Confucius," "Ming Dynasty," and "Manchu," whetted the children's curiosity to know more about the history of the Chinese. The boys and girls drafted individual time lines in order that they might see how these and other significant names and periods fitted into the chronological sequence of China's history. As discussions continued important events and happenings such as the manufacture of pottery, beginnings of silk culture, the invention of paper, the introduction of Buddhism and of Christianity, the building of the Great Wall, and various other outstanding occurrences were placed within the periods to which they belonged. The time lines were used as a means of aiding time sense and not for the purpose of learning a number of specific dates.

During this so-called orientation or "tone" period, the boys and girls were led to read extensively, according to their abilities, both for "information and formation." Legendary and imaginative reading was introduced simultaneously with the factual, but great care was taken not to confuse fact and fancy in youthful minds. They read to gather knowledge, and much of such wisdom is contained in myth and story lore,

in verse and epic. These tales, rich in imagery and poetic in feeling, remain a universal heritage since, through the spirit of the old tale bearer, the child reinterprets an ancient past in terms of his own understanding. Through the story medium, the pupils were brought into friendly and hospitable relations with forms of nature and human nature which though different from their own in sum, were soon found to contain much that was similar. Pages replete with the customs and manners of the people—whether at work or at play, in temple or in palace, at war or at peace—invited readers to search for information, beauty, and truth. So far as books were concerned, the children breathed a bracing and stimulating air from the very beginning. From the singing story-tellers of China, they delighted in the beautiful legend of the Great Bell of Peking, which still, after five hundred years, whispers on its backward stroke, *Hsieh, Hsieh*, the Chinese word for slipper; and the children listening call out "We know; we know; Ko-ai is crying for her slipper, poor Ko-ai."

To intensify impressions gained through reading about the Middle Kingdom, various museums were visited. Especially fruitful were the journeys to the Roerich Museum where the boys and girls had the opportunity to see a replica of a library such as one would find in a Buddhist monastery. They were fascinated when inspecting the board-bound sacred books, as well as in examining the prayer wheel, the shrines, and the bugles from Tibet. On other occasions there were excursions to the Metropolitan Museum of Art where Chinese paintings and scrolls, fans and armor, pagodas and Buddhas, all gave concrete form to what had been read, and roused an emotional impulse that found outlet in creative work.

Topics such as the following with special reference to the lives and culture of the Chinese formed the nucleus of the study.

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Life in the farm villages and the work of the farmer cultivating his fields: his tools; the cropping system; conditions of roads; marketing days; famines and floods; and meager opportunities for recreation.

The work of the craftsmen and quality of products: rug making; lacquering; jade cutting; embroidering; ink making; silk dyeing and weaving; the casting of brass and bronze; and production of fans, jewelry, and firecrackers.

Homes of the people: standards of living among the various classes; comforts and conveniences of life in the Western sense and in the Eastern sense; family life and the importance of the family in China; and government in the home.

Religious beliefs: ancestor worship; temples and pagodas; ceremonies and codes of ethics.

Recreation: theater, sacred and secular; games that children play, games of Chinese origin; importance of festivals in Chinese life.

Art: reason for similarity between the ancient and the more modern; place of symbolism; peculiar art forms such as the scroll; the results of the brush techniques; and the significance of Chinese porcelain.

Literature: Chinese poetry, reflecting and interpreting the spirit of the people; folklore, contributing a knowledge of tradition and ancient ethnic worship; modern story narrative relying upon authentic environmental material; peculiar emphasis upon antiquity, conveyed through manuscripts, sayings, and adages of wise men, scholars, and poets such as Confucius, Mencius, Li Tai-po, and Tu Fu.

The following description will indicate the character and variety of the activities entered upon by the boys and girls. Young musicians collected musical instruments and tried to attune Western ears to Eastern music. Youthful artists attempted to record their impressions with brush and pen.

Wharfs busy with the great ships and the native junks, and rivers filled with houseboats and sampans fascinated the seafarers. The dragon of awful mien, ever present in Chinese art, though frightening in aspect, lured a few to investigate the reason for his omnipresence in "the celestial kingdom." The Great Wall, that remarkable feat of ages past, stimulated alike the poet and potential engineer. A Chinese wheelbarrow with its human cargo was a challenge to the modern student of transportation. Temples and pagodas, and statues of Buddha on hill-sides and roads beckoned a few to enter the temples and join the worshippers. Here a funeral cortege, or there a wedding procession with music and firecrackers and a heavily curtained red sedan chair coming into view piqued the curiosity of young bystanders. Books with their pages of hand-made paper carefully folded between board coverings or bound with silken cords aroused book lovers to study the invention of paper and printing. A piece of pottery of the Ming Dynasty, when its history was made known, unfolded the ancient art of making porcelain to the collector of rare ceramics. There seemed to be as many different interests as there were children.

The religious mysticism of the Orient was caught and held for a moment in such lines as these, called *An Invocation*:

On a hill where stands a temple
Voices rise in cadence chanted;
They float across the moonlit water,
Asking that their prayers be granted.

Priests sing out the midnight vesper
And the drone of gongs sounds clear;
Through the misty air it lingers
Bringing music unto our ear.

Or again, the imaginative concept in history inspired a boy to write in ten-minutes time the lines:

Above the ground it towers high
Reaching towards the sunlit sky;
The sentinel of China stands
Alone amid the desert sands.

Across the mountains sweeps the wall,
Old, rigid, thick, and tall;
It stood through battles grim and great,
Awaiting victory or fate.

As the children worked at their projects, they turned to one or another of the teachers with remarks such as the following:

"I've thought of the best rhyme for Confucius. Oh! I know what I'll do. I'll write a verse or two under every illustration I make."

"We have a great idea. Under each illustration in this frieze we are making, we are going to put a quotation from history."

"I suppose I'll just have to measure this latitude and longitude accurately if I am going to sketch in a map. Then it will be simple to draw in the coast line."

"Oh! look, this is a lovely book. And such interesting material!" From the other side of the room came these comments, "Is the author an authority on the subject? . . . What is his name and who publishes the book? . . . I'll buy a copy of that for myself."

"I want to make a study of Chinese painting. I thought that the pictures might have a history like 'The Last Supper,' and those that get cut out of their frames and have adventures like people, but in China all I can find out is about the lives of painters and what they painted."^a

The procedures and activities herein related are in accordance with the philosophy inherent in the experiment. They are consistent with the beliefs that child learning proceeds from within; that integrated patterns are essential to the true educative process; that the whole must be permeated and consummated with activity of a truly creative nature; that the child working towards the limits of his own capacity to *think* and to *do* brings forth a product upon his own level, *and that many and different*

levels represent the ultimate achievement of any group. The essential factor is that the teacher evoke response from even the poorest pupil in the class. The result may be mediocre, feeble perhaps, but the manner of its being and the measure of its worth in growing power to the boy or girl is the all important feature.

True integration offers rich and sure rewards. It enables the teacher to use materials in which the creative attitude may alternate with the critical, and to bring about situations in which such attitudes may function naturally. It induces an appreciation in the child's mind which becomes the latent forces of creativity. It stimulates activities which are real by placing the learner in lifelike situations. It ensures the exercise of skills and techniques in accordance with actual needs which demand their repeated utilization. It allows for the teaching of materials in their psychological and proper relationships rather than in isolated compartments now known as subjects. Integrated materials may offer a program rich in content and of great variety, for there are numberless sources from which to cull. The materials are only the media through which life and the essence of life may be studied.

To that first group of boys and girls in Lincoln School, the experimental procedure brought a happy and satisfying experience. To those interested in the experiment, it gave confidence to continue the integrated program, which, with the assistance and interest of the administrative force, has been extended to include units in American culture taught with similar groups in the eighth year. In the present seventh grade a unit on Greek culture is now in progress.

For a few of us at least, an integrated program in English, art, and social studies has answered some of the questions, and furnished an impetus to live yet a little longer with the seventh graders.

^a Taken from stenographic reports.

LEARNING TO LIVE

JOSEPH S. BUTTERWECK

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Butterweck expresses the opinion, held by many, that the present plan of serving "education" to pupils from compartments is indefensible. He wants to give pupils a real chance to learn to live.* F.E.L.

LEARNING TO LIVE. Isn't this what our schools have been teaching our boys and girls at all times?

Let us first step back into our school experience of a generation ago. Perhaps some of my readers belong to this generation and remember how they began their introduction to reading by learning the alphabet, then learning to spell words, and later to put words into sentences. We have improved on those methods because they represented an artificial situation. The alphabet had no meaning to the child; the sounds which resulted from combining letters conveyed little or no meaning and even many of the short sentences thus created were not intelligible to him. The child was supposed to make something intelligible by combining meaningless sounds. And this we called the teaching of reading. How absurd this now seems to us and yet for hundreds of years children were taught to read by this laborious method. No wonder that the greatest part of six or eight years of the child's time was consumed before a fair proficiency in reading was attained.

Those of you who have children in school know that a very different approach to reading is used today. You probably also know that much less time is devoted to teaching reading and that the amount of reading which a child does by the end of the sixth grade is far in excess of that which was done by you a generation ago. We have increased the efficiency because we discovered a better method.

Today a child is not introduced to reading until the school has given him a great deal of experience with the world around him. He is first taught to play, to build things,

to talk about his experiences and to express curiosity about his environment. It is not until this point has been reached that there is any real need for reading. And then the child is introduced first to words and sentences which occurred in his previous experiences.

He is taught to recognize words or phrases which stand for objects or experiences with which he is already familiar. He doesn't even spell the word until he has learned to recognize it, and he doesn't learn the letters of the alphabet until he has frequently written the words. You will notice that this is almost the reverse of the method which was used a generation ago.

First the child has the experience, then he associates the experience with words and phrases, then he learns the words and phrases, and in this manner he learns the letters of the alphabet.

Let us take another example from the field of language, this time on the high-school level. Some of my readers will remember how they struggled over their foreign languages. First came the letters of the alphabet with their English equivalent, then came some simple words with their English meaning, then a number of short sentences to be translated from the foreign language into the English and vice versa, then the declensions and the conjugations, etc., etc. In the course of three years of such a grind, a few of the more fortunate members of the class had learned to read with sufficient proficiency to enjoy the language, but of those who survived the ordeal the large majority could do no more than translate sentences; they could not read and think in the new language. They really had

failed to learn the language. The fact that the last twenty or twenty-five pages of the reader (the vocabulary pages) were always ten times more soiled than the rest of the book was a clear evidence of this.

Not so in the progressive foreign-language class of today. The pupil is first given a large variety of experiences in the foreign language and then when he has built up an oral vocabulary which has been identified with a real experience he begins to read. When he reads, his attention is constantly called to the ideas conveyed and not the meaning of individual words. He thus is taught to read rather than to transverbalize.

Note again that the experience comes first, that it deals with something closely related to his life or grows out of his life, and that it is this experience which the child is taught to express in the words of the foreign tongue. His experience with the language is unified.

Now what does this have to do with the unified curriculum and what does it have to do with learning to live?

Let us follow the average tenth-grade boy or girl through a day's normal routine. After getting up in the morning he eats his breakfast and hurries to school. The nine o'clock bell rings and he goes to a class in geometry. There he proves propositions which have little or no relation to life, but which are designed to give him a set of mental gymnastics. After forty-five minutes of this, a bell rings to summon him to an English class where he reads, analyzes, and memorizes portions of the *Idylls of the King*; another forty-five minutes elapse and he proceeds to another classroom where the Latin teacher will listen to translations from Caesar, and although he translates *veni, vidi, vici* correctly he probably never came, nor saw, least of all conquered either the Latin or the school life in which the Latin and the boy are placed; after forty-five minutes more he is released from this torture and

proceeds to his history class where stories of the political machinations of debauched kings are fitted together in order to learn something about the seventeenth-century European history. Fortunately, the noon recess releases him for sixty minutes to mingle freely, and beneficially, among his fellow pupils. At 1.00 o'clock he attends a beginners' French class; at 1.45 he goes to a shop and spends an hour and a half working on an aeroplane model which he hopes will fly when completed. At 3.15 he hurries away to a downtown drug store to run errands for three hours in order to earn his spending money. He has his dinner at 7.00 o'clock, studies until 10.30, and then goes to bed.

Now what preparation has this boy received from his school which enables him to live a more wholesome, a richer, and more beneficial life? And yet millions of high-school pupils are doing this daily.

"Well," some one will ask, "do these school subjects have no connection with life?" Let us answer this question by asking another question: Does the letter "a" have any connection with the written language? Without it I could not have written the words which I am now writing. What then is our quarrel with the mathematics, English, Latin, history, French, shopwork? Just the same as was our quarrel with the letters of the alphabet. When they are used as a means of enriching one's ability to live, then they are not only valuable, but absolutely necessary. But when they are studied first as unrelated things and then the child is supposed to fit them into a pattern which will enable them to function in living, they are ineffectively taught, to say the least.

Until we can devise a method whereby the child lives something approximating a normal life in school and then is led to discover the need for certain knowledge and abilities in order to enrich this life he is not really aided in learning to live.

The tenth-grade boy to whom we referred

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is learning the alphabet of the language of living before he is conscious of its need, before he has had the experiences necessary to understand the value of the letters of the alphabet of living. The school uses the same obsolete approach to the language of living which our elementary schools have long ago discarded as ineffective in teaching the written language, but it does its job even less effectively because it fails to help him to integrate, at any time, the mathematics, English, Latin, history, French, shopwork, earning a living, and living a life among people into a unified whole.

When he enters the geometry class he is learning many facts, each of which is a letter in the alphabet of life. When he enters the history class he learns another series of facts each of which is a letter in the alphabet of life. And so he proceeds, hour after hour and day after day, learning letters of the alphabet of life. The school also helps him to combine some of these letters into words and ideas. He learns many of these words in each of his subjects. But, whereas the school of a generation ago did help the child with his alphabet and words and sentences until he could read the written language with reasonable proficiency, the school of today assumes that when the child has been taught the letters and words of the language of living he can learn to live without further aid. Is it any wonder that so many thinking people today are seriously questioning whether the school is really preparing its boys and girls to live in a world of many and diverse problems?

Let us attempt to make this clearer. Will you look at your hand a moment. Suppose we assume that the palm of the hand represents the child's normal life and that the fingers represent, respectively, the world of history, the world of science, the world of art, etc. Can you imagine your fingers cut off and suspended, separated from the palm and from each other?

This tenth-grade boy leaves the palm of the hand at 9.00 o'clock each day. During the first forty-five minutes he lives in the thumb and there studies the mathematical letters of the alphabet of living. Then at 9.45 he travels into the first finger and there studies the Latin letters of the alphabet of living. At 10.30 he moves over into the middle finger and there becomes familiar with the history alphabet of living. At 12.00 and again at 3.15 he leaves these fingers and moves back into the palm—into life itself, life full of problems which need a better knowledge of certain letters of the alphabet of living if he is to enjoy it in its fullest richness.

These fingers suspended above the palm of the hand have lost their effectiveness as aids in living because the life blood which flows through the palm cannot reach them.

Now will you look at your hand as it really is, fingers so connected with the palm that blood and the nerves which give life to them carry their energy into the palm to serve as feeders.

Let us place this tenth-grade boy on the palm of this hand, the symbol of his life. While circulating about on the hand he comes into contact with his physical environment. He flies a kite and thus copes with the wind, with weight of string, with quality of materials; he plays with his father's automobile and thus copes with gasoline, with vaporization, and with electricity. He also comes into contact with his social environment while he moves about in the life represented by the palm of your hand. He finds that others behave either worse or better than he behaves; others are either better or more poorly dressed than he is; others have either more or less money to spend than he does. His experiences are many and his problems are varied. While he works with his father's automobile he discovers a need to know more about electricity and vaporization, and their relation to running

a combustion engine. Let us now assume that he leaves the palm of your hand for a little while and travels into the finger of science. This is where he finds the information and experiences to become better acquainted with the physics of the combustion engine. He lives in this finger for a few days or probably a week and then returns to the palm of the hand. But this time, he is not the same boy he was a week before. He is intellectually a richer self because of his intellectual excursion into the finger of science.

While he continues to work with the automobile he begins to realize its wonders and he becomes interested in knowing how such a piece of mechanics was made possible. He is then encouraged to take another intellectual excursion, but this time into the history finger. Here he learns how the first combustion engine was made and how slow travel was at that time and how a steam engine had preceded it and how other methods of transportation preceded this. He studies the history of transportation. But he cannot study the history of transportation without also discovering the many social, industrial, and economic changes which were brought about by this change in transportation. In fact, so much is there to be learned in this connection that he remains in the finger of history for several days or perhaps even weeks. When he returns again to the palm of the hand he is a very different individual. His intellectual excursion has been so rich in experience that his outlook on life and his knowledge of the complexity of its problems has greatly increased.

In his further activities with his father's automobile he discovers that the lines on the fenders and the top are different than those of his neighbor's new car. His art teacher helps him take another excursion. This one into the finger of creative art. There the boy creates designs which combine beauty, grace, and practicability. He

may continue on this art excursion long enough to develop new automobile designs or to create suggestions for advertising the automobile and its allied commercial products, or he may want to let his imagination take him into a new world and to envision a new architecture which is better fitted to the age of science and industry in which the automobile is being developed.

Have we taken this picture far enough to show that in this new school the child is going to solve problems which are real to him and which are a part of his environment, but that to solve these problems he is going to make intellectual excursions into specialized fields of intellectual endeavor, there to learn those ideas, skills, abilities, and attain the knowledge necessary to enrich his experience with the life problems. By so doing the pupil will learn the language of living as we are now teaching him the language of conversation and writing—teaching the letters of the alphabet of living and the spelling of the words of living as an outgrowth of and for an enrichment of the language of living. We say that his experience with history, mathematics, art, science, and life is unified. It is for this reason that we call it the unified curriculum.

Again the skeptic will say, "Do you mean we can bring all of the child's experiences into school?" No more than we can bring into school all of the sentences which the child is likely to meet in his outside reading. But we can bring into school a select number of such experiences which are vital in the child's life and which require a varied amount of specialized knowledge for their solution.

This tenth-grade boy is surrounded by many problems of which he is conscious or of which he can be made conscious with proper teacher guidance. He is looking forward to a life vocation; does he know what vocations are open to him, what preparation they require, what opportunities they

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offer? Excursions into the finger of science, into the finger of the social sciences, or into the finger of English will reveal many. He is already earning his own spending money and can become interested in the relative wisdom of saving and spending and the relative merits of the different methods of saving and investing. Intellectual excursions into the finger of mathematics, social sciences, and commercial subjects will help him in solving this problem.

As he grows older he becomes increasingly conscious of the social, political, and economic problems of the world of the adult. His curiosity is aroused, he becomes altruistic; an ambition to help solve the problems seizes him. Excursions into the finger of the social sciences, literature, psychology, art, and science are required if he is going to learn to attack these with maximum proficiency.

Those who have been associated with our most progressive elementary school will say that what I am here advocating is no different than what they are now doing in grades one to three and in a few cases even up to grade six. Quite true, in a few progressive

schools like the Oak Lane Country Day School, where the so-called activities program has been inaugurated, children are daily being taught the language of living. They make boats and take intellectual excursions into the field of arithmetic, geography, reading, and history. They live in miniature the lives of the Indian, taking intellectual excursions into the field of geography, history, art, music, and dramatics. They learn the story of bread, taking intellectual excursions into the field of history, geography, transportation, chemistry, and physics.

In this manner, the child's life and that part of race heritage denoted for us as history, science, mathematics, and the like is being unified and the child is really learning to live.

Until our secondary schools and our colleges remake their educational offerings as the teaching of reading has been remade in the past generation, and as some of our most progressive elementary schools are now remaking their curriculum, they cannot be said to be aiding boys and girls in learning to live.

AN EXPERIMENT ON THE SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL

ELMINA R. LUCKE
The Lincoln School

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Elmina R. Lucke believes that we can overcome, through integration, one of our greatest shortcomings, i.e., turning out pupils with fragmentary bits of unrelated knowledge. She uses social studies, English, and fine and industrial arts as factors.* F.E.H.

WORLD mindedness, necessary awareness of world relationships, the interdependence of nations, the universality and timelessness of art, of all human achievements, and fundamental human aspirations, American society operating on a world stage—these are important phrases in our current vocabularies which are used with constantly increasing conviction. Yet we have in our educational planning provided far too rarely for steady growth into those meanings; especially have we lacked reasonable approach in the senior high school, when, perhaps, of all times in his school life, the child is ready for those achievements, those connections, those developments, which can bring him to conscious and happy acceptance of his share in the heritage of mankind, to his place in his world.

We in the Lincoln School of Teachers College have no record to defend in this situation—we have talked perhaps more; we trust we have accomplished no less. Because we have talked and believed in world mindedness we have brought into every study something of world perspective, and in certain fields we have attempted syntheses of some value. But we have allowed in our senior high school an elective system permitting, almost encouraging, fragments of history, admirable surveys of art and literature with only sketchy social, economic, and political backgrounds, similar surveys of history without time enough for more than references to art and literary developments growing out of the culture of the peoples or times studied. We have on occasion allowed very early specialization for students going into a world that is insisting on increasing leisure even for specialists.

From traveling and living in foreign lands and working with many peoples, a teacher came to the Lincoln School with the conviction that in its experimentation must be a place for a new teaching of the world we live in, teaching especially adapted to adolescence just merging into manhood and womanhood, when new meanings and deeper appreciations are needed, indeed demanded, when relationships and developments only partially understood before are necessary to those meanings and appreciations.

From college and travel a graduate of the Lincoln School came back with the question as to why schools, both high school and college, leave connections to be made largely after graduation, why the great developments of civilization are not within the capacity of high-school minds, why such a survey should not be required background or foundation in the senior high school.

From the research department of the Lincoln School came a tentative curriculum which urged a survey of civilization as belonging to the tenth-grade level, at least for its beginning.

An opportunity and a challenge to that teacher and former student, this experiment is now under way. To plan for it, to put dreams into actual practice, is terrific testing. To carry it through is to strain the resources of the school and its capacity for co-operative effort. By the time this article is published the experiment will be well under way; another article may record its successes and failures; this one records only the plan, the dream. . . .

For every boy and girl in the tenth grade shall come the opportunity to see man on his road to present-day civilizations. First

A SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL EXPERIMENT

the setting of man in his universe—the various theories of the earth's beginnings, the geological ages with the development of life to its higher forms, the tentative men—should be given place in the study according to previous science teaching and with the help of the science department. Primitive man will demand next consideration, primitive man of long ago and primitive man of today. There shall be analyses of their gropings and their achievements, of their gradual attainment of some measure of control of their universe. From the cave paintings of Cro-Magnons, from neolithic pottery and weaving, from the earliest written records, it will be a clear though crowded road to the great ancient civilizations and on to the modern. We shall survey each from a high moment in its history when life was richest and fullest and most interesting, and we shall choose civilizations not only of the west but of the east, of the whole world round. To provide for that sense of continuity and time relationship too often violated in our fragmentary courses, chronological order shall be observed except when it may hinder rather than help understanding because other relationships are more illuminating. The servant of teacher and student, chronology shall play its part in weaving together the high points in man's achievements.

At each such great moment of civilization the student shall have the opportunity to enter vicariously into the life of that people, to be with them as they work, as they play, as they worship, as they create the beautiful, to try to think with them, to try to discover what they are proudest of in their tradition, to share with them that which is most thrilling, that which is loveliest, that which is most worth while in their culture. With all resources of the departments of English and social studies, the fine and industrial arts (including music), with teachers from those departments to guide with no barriers of subject matter to prevent emphasis accord-

ing to importance in the civilization under discussion, there is opportunity for the boys and girls to live in those past times and remote places, experiencing the richness of their civilizations. They should feel the successes and the failures in each of them and tarry with those things which men of each age have called great or beautiful.

To some minds some things are interesting to which others are indifferent; to some that may be beauty which has no charm for others. Once introduced to the great personalities and events, the outstanding achievements which have conditioned its culture, its best literature, and its finest art, then the student who is truly a traveler in a far land will seek that which has greatest interest for him. The scientific mind will find the scientist; the practical will find events of commerce and industry; the art loving will go further into the architecture, the painting, the sculpture, the literature, the music; those with creative bent will work with the artist, finding new medium for their own art expression. Gradually will come the realization that in all highly developed levels of civilization are the common factors of human life, the capacity for rich and significant living. Still more gradually, perhaps, will come the realization of how many heights of civilization have been reached only to be lost with some of its finest elements until this day not regained. Still more gradually, certainly, will come the sense of great developments, of the guiding threads of that great interwoven fabric which we call the life of mankind, of the nature of that cultural heritage which is ours to build further, and higher, or lower.

Such a study should be given two years with the time each day formerly given to English and history, with freedom to study in museums, theater, or opera, in consultation with travelers and those who are students and critics of civilization, past and present, with freedom to travel to great

monuments of past or foreign civilizations—but that is dreaming too far and could not probably be included in two years for any high-school group of size. A committee of teachers who are specialists must plan it and must share the teaching, each yielding his pet procedures, selections, and emphases to the new and bigger teaching situation; with the outstanding specialists in their respective fields they should plan new approaches, new selections, new integrations. While one teacher must have major responsibility to provide a thread for the integrated subject matter and unity for procedure, there should be no domination of subject matter or, if possible, of personality. Technical English should be taught in connection with every bit of written or spoken work; clinics should be provided for all who have difficulties beyond those solved by careful correction and comment. Good form in all written work should be considered as art of a kind, at least as containing the essentials of art. Creative writing, creative art of all types, should be expected as fruition of these new experiences; provision should be made for time for all students to attempt it lest those who think they have no such ability never try. Foreign languages should be used as fast as they are available; the foreign-language teachers might choose as their own medium material that has contributory value if it can be done without danger of what the students might call monotonous repetition. Mathematics and science should be richer for the historical background provided and should be utilized whenever essential to the understanding of processes.

There should be student committees, too, to help plan in those matters where student point of view or opinion or prejudice may have more value in planning than any specialist's or adult's. Also as a clearing house of confusions and misunderstandings such a committee should be invaluable. They should be helpful in another aspect of the

faculty's responsibility, that is, the organizing of detailed elective courses which should be opened to the students both in the eleventh and twelfth years whereby they could continue more detailed study of those subjects wherein their interest is deepest, whether in literature, or history, or the creative arts.

Finally—but I pause to insert another item which looms large in the dream: A perfect physical setting for such work is essential—space, light, informal seating which can be changed to serve many purposes, books, pictures, place for exhibits, an atmosphere of study without the old conventionality—without these the work is handicapped.

The dreamer asks, Could boys and girls come out of a course so planned with the haziness, the confusion, the lists of unrelated facts and events and empty names that most of us have carried around under the title of world literature, or history, or art, even when we have had the best of teachers and learning experiences in some of the limited fields? Could they see the world unrelated in time and space? Could they continue to put man in quite such air-tight compartments of nationality and race? Could they accept quite so easily prejudiced evaluations of events and personalities and products and potentialities of other cultures? Could they lack background and bigger meaning for their specialized interests? Could they lack background and ideas for the leisure time which they may have whether or not they want it?

They could, the stern realist who is also the dreamer answers, they could if the teaching were not done with outstanding intelligence and scholarship, with fine appreciations and enthusiasms, with careful balance and evaluations. The experiment will tell whether we who become the faculty committee in charge have a big enough world vision ourselves to bring it to others, even unto our students.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND ADOLESCENT YOUTH

HARRISON H. VAN COTT

EDITOR'S NOTE: *In this article Mr. Van Cott sets out to "evaluate the junior-high-school program through a consideration of adolescent nature, the phases of the junior-high-school program, and an appraisal of the program in terms of its harmonies with adolescent needs."*

F.E.H.

THE PROGRAM of the junior high school ministers to the needs of its adolescent boys and girls. It serves these needs better than the traditional program which trained the memory primarily. The junior-high-school program does these two things in ways which harmonize with adolescent nature and therefore can easily be justified.

The task of this article is to evaluate the junior-high-school program through a consideration of adolescent nature, the phases of the junior-high-school program, and an appraisal of the program in terms of its harmonies and discords with adolescent needs.

ADOLESCENT NATURE

Adolescent nature is distinct from childhood or adult nature. It is an intermediate stage with no abruptness of existence or non-existence, but nevertheless a distinct nature characterized by many attributes. These attributes should be recognized by every administrator or teacher who is trying to serve adolescent youth.

1. Adolescent boys and girls are sensing their growth. They feel and know they are no longer children. They know they belong to a different group from the children's group and they cherish and are proud of an organization different from a child's organization which they can call their own. They therefore are most happy in a school which is organized for them, one which they can call their school because its program harmonizes with their natures and treats them more as grown-ups, less as children.

The building does not need to be ornate or elaborate, to have cupolas with spire or clock, to be provided with expensive columns or massive entrances, marble walls or wind-

ing staircases, mahogany furniture, or hand-carved woodwork, outdoor amphitheaters or twenty-acre playgrounds in order to be suitable for a junior high school. One of the best junior high schools the writer visited was housed in the poorest of buildings. This does not argue for poor buildings for junior-high-school pupils, but emphasizes the fact that costly junior-high-school buildings and equipment are not necessary. If the school is organized with the characteristics of adolescent nature in mind and the pupils themselves are allowed to share the responsibility of making the wheels of the school go round it will be their school to them and they will be happy participants therein, no matter what the physical equipment may be.

2. Adolescent boys and girls differ among themselves in their capacities to understand, their abilities to perform, and their interests for various types of work. Too long has the traditional secondary school endeavored to teach uniform subject matter in a uniform manner to nonuniform pupils. Junior-high-school boys and girls vary in their intelligence quotients from 80 to 120 in various lines of mental endeavor, but it is the exceptional pupil who ranks 80 in every line of work or 120 in every line of work. Some are efficient workers in all subjects so far as being able to obtain passing grades is concerned, some need more time than others to achieve the same successful outcome, some can play and sing or carve or mold or paint or sew, some can play games well while others cannot, some are great readers while others are not, some are leaders in their groups and others are not, some are organizers and others are followers.

At the adolescent age when the common

learnings of the elementary school have been mastered it is time for the varying abilities and latent powers of our pupils along several lines to be discovered, nurtured, and allowed to grow and develop. For this reason the junior-high-school curriculum is differentiated in content. A single curriculum for all cannot be justified on the basis of service to the pupils themselves.

3. Each adolescent junior-high-school boy or girl is more or less conscious of a change physically and welcomes any activity which will help him or her to develop qualities of manhood or womanhood. Each pupil needs attention in the ways of health, hygiene, free play, guided exercise, and, if need be, corrective work, adapted to his individual needs. Each one loves his general science work, for it is a story of living things and the processes of life are most interesting to him.

4. Adolescent pupils are naturally egotistic, are likely to be critical of their elders and those who seem to them as children, and are anxious to be allowed to direct their own affairs. All these attributes are natural. It is natural for boys and girls to take a trip "over fool's hill." When we adults took similar trips we were egotistic and critical of our elders and we learned by experience better than in any other way. It is natural for adolescent boys and girls to want to fly alone. Independent habits of thinking, study, solving problems, citing of examples contributing to classwork, fostered in the days of youth persist through life.

How important it is in these years to set up school situations wherein pupils can recognize the abilities of others, wherein they are allowed to proceed with the advice of teachers and are led to realize that the advice is sound. Standards should be kept high and pupils should be expected to do their best. When pupils are allowed to take the initiative under guidance, in working out their plans for work, then they are encouraged. They should be held responsible for

the best work they are capable of doing, and this is a responsibility for the guidance program. The junior high school emphasizes the guidance program for the sake of service to its youth.

5. Adolescent boys and girls are easily encouraged by their elders and are sensitive to criticism.

Little things and small happenings create much excitement among adolescent student bodies. These little things are all important to them. The mark on a written paper, the remark of a teacher or classmate, the way some one recited, the way another acted, etc. The emotions of adolescent boys and girls should be considered. They are aroused easily and antipathies or loyalties may result. How careful the successful junior-high-school teacher is to make each pupil feel that he is successful! Only the exceptional pupil cannot succeed at something. So only this exceptional pupil can be called a failure and he too might be successful if he could find a job for which he is fitted. Probably there is one even for him.

No pupil should be labeled a failure. The junior high school endeavors to find avenues of success for all pupils. To illustrate: the writer visited a junior high school in New York State a few weeks ago. A class in clay modeling was in progress. One boy who seemed to be somewhat overage for the grade was doing unusually fine work. He was proud to show me some of his work. There were lions, tigers, people, and infant heads among his work, and they gave evidence of his ability. The teacher said: "He fails in all his other work, but succeeds in this. I am taking him to a sculptor's exhibit in the city this week-end." What a piece of service that teacher was rendering! When that boy gets out of school he will not be looked upon as a failure. Possibly, yes probably, he will be able to serve society with his works of art more than those who were called successes in academic subject matter. Other cases

NEEDS OF ADOLESCENT YOUTH

might be cited to show that junior high schools with their different opportunities for different boys and girls are making them feel success and happiness. This is a paramount service which all such schools worthy of the name junior high school are rendering.

6. Adolescent youths are anxious to be treated as adults.

A six-year old said to his thirteen-year-old brother, "Put my bicycle into the garage." The reply came, "Don't tell me; ask me and I will." To his younger brother he felt free to speak thus. To his teacher or parent he would have felt like saying it, but probably would not have said it. That youth is fortunate who has a teacher with an understanding of the cravings of youth for adult standing, and treats him as an adult as much as possible, who leads but does not drive, who suggests but does not scold, who does not nag but expects conduct becoming an adult, who extols success and minimizes failure, who inspires confidence, but not contempt.

Junior-high-school pupils love their schools as they are administered today. Courtesy and conduct codes, school creeds, homeroom organizations, guidance programs, pupil conferences for the discovery of innate talents, desires and interests, the socialized recitation, pupil participation in school control, pupil managed assemblies and club programs, all help pupils to feel that they are growing up and are taking responsibility successfully, and that in itself is necessary for keeping them happy in their school environments.

The junior high school remembers that its pupils are not children, although but a little way removed from that category and that the way by which the gap from self-centered childhood to socially minded adulthood may be developed is by helping them to practise wholesome ways for social living.

7. Adolescent youth is reverent, easily influenced to adopt high ideals for conduct,

and willing to render service to others when the opportunity arises.

A few weeks ago a principal asked me to be present at a junior-high-school birthday party. The whole school of twelve hundred boys and girls were seated in assembly. A pupil was chairman for the program. When the time came to start the program he advanced to the front of the platform, read several verses from the Bible and led the assembly in the Lord's Prayer. It was an impressive sight. No assembly group could have been more reverent in a similar situation. No adult leader could have led in the devotional part of an assembly program in a more dignified manner. As the exercises proceeded, and as they sang "Come Thou Almighty King" and then listened to the rest of the program, I became convinced that youth is reverent, well mannered, and interested in the finest things of life if guided wisely.

A certain junior high school in New York State has a student council which has taken the initiative in formulating the following code of conduct. Pupils in their several homerooms voted to support their school and conduct themselves at all times according to the terms of the code:

1. I believe I should be *strong*—physically, mentally, morally. "A wise man is strong; yea, a man of knowledge increaseth strength."
2. I believe I should be *industrious*—in thought, work, plan.
3. I believe I should be *modest*—in speech, dress, action. "Thy modesty is a candle to thy merit."
4. I believe I should be *clean*—in person, mind, heart.
5. I believe I should be *kind*—to friend, stranger, unfortunate. "A fellow feeling makes us wondrous kind."
6. I believe I should be *obedient*—to parents, teachers, society. "We are unfit for any trust 'till we can and do obey."
7. I believe I should be *just*—to self, friend, foe. "The world has faith and trust in him who is just."

8. I believe I should be *cheerful*—in appearance, attitude, work. "Cheerfulness seeks no reward but gains it in reflected sunshine."

Junior high schools commonly have similar codes to the one above. Can any one doubt that when adolescent pupils formulate, adopt, and live by such a code for several years that their resulting habits of action will not carry over into later life and be of benefit to themselves and to society?

Christmas time was approaching. The members of a homeroom heard that one of their number had been stricken and was in poor circumstances. They voted to provide a Christmas dinner with all the "fixins," to furnish new bedding and warm wearing apparel for their homeroom friend. They did all this and arranged for the delivery of milk, cream, and eggs to her home each day. The little sufferer had tuberculosis. When school reassembled after New Years Day, the committee of visitors reported. Never, said they, had they spent such a happy Christmas. They had made their friend happy by taking to her good cheer and some of the things she needed. When schools encourage their pupils to do such acts of mercy it is not necessary to evaluate their worth. Such service to idealistic, impressionistic youth exceeds the bounds of a measuring stick.

Such are some of the qualities and needs of junior-high-school boys and girls. Some one has remarked that the junior high school is an atmosphere and environment particularly adapted to the wholesome development of such adolescent qualities and needs.

PHASES OF THE JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM

In keeping with the desires and needs of youth are the following objectives for the junior-high-school program:

1. To help pupils to understand the worth of good health and the ways of fostering it for themselves

2. To help pupils to become self-directive in their acts of study, social conduct, and participation in and out of the school

3. To help pupils to understand their responsibilities as members of the home, the community, the school, the State, and the nation

4. To help them to appreciate the best and finest things in life

5. To help them to receive an inspiration for a life of service

6. To help them to prepare themselves for success in some future activity which may carry them further in school or into the work of the world

Junior high schools incorporate into their programs many features for satisfying these objectives.

1. A well-rounded health program consisting of health and hygiene instruction, clinical observation and corrective work, visitation to the homes by the school nurse, supervised play activities for all-round development of body muscles, organized sports and games, individual physical examinations, well-balanced menus of wholesome food for the school cafeteria, attention to bodily comfort while in school, regular physical-training activities in the gymnasium under the direction of trained teachers.

2. To help them acquire power for self-direction, directed classroom study following a careful and complete assignment, regulated home study so that pupils will feel free and have time to direct their own work rather than coerced to learn specific facts in as short a time as possible, pupil managed assembly and club programs, pupil appointed traffic squads to function both inside and outside the building, the assignment of many problems and the request for many examples and illustrations for the development of their thinking powers, the preparation of notebooks according to their own ideas, and upon topics which they choose for purposes of description and exhibit before their class-

NEEDS OF ADOLESCENT YOUTH

mates, continual encouragement to find out as much in connection with a given project as their interest leads them to find, and the use of some form of differentiated lesson assignment which encourages pupils to forge ahead in order to accomplish as much as they can according to their abilities.

3. To help pupils to understand their home and civic responsibilities, courses in homemaking, thrift, home mechanics, economic citizenship, elements of business and government find justifiable places in the curriculum. The school is managed under a constitution which the pupils have had a part in drafting, student courts are set up, school opinion is fostered through a daily or weekly school newspaper, and the well-being of the school as a continual pupil project is kept prominent in pupil discussion groups.

4. To help junior-high-school boys and girls appreciate some of the finer things in life, courses and clubs emphasizing music, art, reading, literature, sculpture, painting, design, bookbinding, etc., are given; excursions are made to art galleries and museums, to the finest homes and buildings in the vicinity, to the parks to study the sculptor's handiwork, to nature to study its wonders of plant, animal life, and the heavenly bodies, and to places of historic significance. Character-training programs and honor societies are established, biographies of great men and women who have rendered noble service are read and studied, all in order that pupils may have the opportunity of catching visions of some of the better things in life, things that make life worth living in the finest sense of the term.

5. The finest task a school can perform is to give inspiration for a life of service. The traditional school program gave little thought to the satisfaction of such an objective. When a boy or girl is most susceptible to challenges for service is the time to make the appeal. This the junior high school endeavors to do through its service clubs which

work in the school and in the community, its school creeds, codes of conduct, and courtesy, school songs, and honor societies. Assembly programs calling attention to the worth-while services of famous characters of the past and present, addresses by those who are rendering present-day service for the uplift of society, and the guidance program which draws the attention of pupils to the various avenues for service which are open to men and women, all play a part in helping junior-high-school boys and girls to catch a vision of the values which a life of service to one's fellow brings to those who practise it.

This objective and these practices in themselves alone justify the junior-high-school program of the present and for its accomplishment a very little extra expense is necessary. In fact the burden of justification rests upon the traditional academic school which does not recognize these objectives, rather than upon the junior high school which endeavors to meet this objective and does all that the traditional school does besides in the way of academic learnings.

6. The junior high school does not as has sometimes been charged fail to prepare its pupils for further work in school. Through its academic courses in English, mathematics, history, geography, social studies, science, and language its pupils are prepared for tenth-year work in college preparatory courses. Business, agriculture, industrial arts, homemaking, art, music, library, reading, educational and vocational opportunity, and physical-training courses prepare them for their probable future walks and interests in life as nearly as they can be determined.

The junior high school does not need to justify these different courses for its different boys and girls. They are necessary because the boys and girls are all different. The one-track school for one type of pupil must defend its program and justify it on the basis of doing the greatest good to the

greatest number of boys and girls to help them live more efficient lives, before the junior high school will find it necessary to justify its richer program.

The warp and woof of the junior-high-school program upon which its success depends are expressed by the following specific watchwords or slogans for the motivation of its teaching techniques and its social program:

1. Individual attention for each child
2. Industriousness and accomplishment according to ability
3. Independent thought power
4. Initiative for conduct
5. Integrity in every situation
6. Inspiration for service

These are the six I's which junior high schools remember when dealing with adolescent youth; youth, eager to succeed, willing to work, just reaching the full capacity of its latent mental powers, anxious to be self-directive in matters of personal conduct, honest, reverent, sincere in its ambition to live nobly and act nobly if it knows what it means, and sensitive as never before or again to an inspiration for a life of service among its fellows which will lift society to a higher level.

Unless junior high schools adopt this code as a code for their work they have no right

to call themselves junior high schools, nor have they dedicated themselves to the needs of adolescent youth. If they meet these objectives they will not feel called upon to justify their programs but other schools failing to meet such objectives for better living will be called upon to justify their programs.

Junior high schools cannot be truly evaluated on the basis of their physical equipment, nor their success in completely departmentalizing their instruction, nor will they need to justify their costs because the increase in costs which has been criticized by some is due to the unessentials in physical equipment, and not to the phases of the program which have been emphasized in this article and which may be called the essential features, essential because they are dedicated to that type of service which will in turn result in service to society.

Junior high schools are preparing their pupils for wholesome, efficient citizenship in a democracy. If they are evaluated in terms of such service, then they will rank high. To guide adolescent youth into ways of complete living is a task of paramount importance. This is the task of America to perform, not only for the sake of the youth of the land but for the sake of her own perpetuation and for the continuance of her leadership among the nations.

Next Month Our April Issue Deals With **THE HIGH SCHOOL in the DEPRESSION**

"Findings indicate clearly that it is hazardous to impose economies by fiat," says DR. WILLIAM C. REVIS, University of Chicago, in his article headed "*Improvements and Economy in Secondary School Administration*."

DR. BANCROFT BEATLEY of Harvard University in discussing economy measures says, "The principal should recommend elimination of inferior and mediocre teachers, whatever their status with respect to tenure."

Superintendents and principals faced with the need for budget cutting will be interested in these articles.

SCHOOL NEWS

S. O. ROREM

From Nebraska

The Lincoln public schools, coöperating with the committees of the American Legion and the Lincoln Chamber of Commerce, made a new emphasis in the recognition of Armistice Day. In years before the schools had participated first in an outdoor parade and later in a mass meeting in the University Coliseum. It was felt that many more pupils would be benefited and patrons as well if the schools' part of the Armistice Day celebration might be held within each of the different individual schools. This was done with the result that 17,000 pupils and many hundreds of patrons had a part in this phase of the recognition of Armistice Day. The programs were largely the outgrowth of the suggestions of the pupils, themselves, and were staged through the coöperation of school authorities and faculties. It is agreed that the patriotic spirit was as sincere and its expression probably finer and more dignified than on previous occasions.

The Holdrege Junior-Senior High School authorities have instituted a number of very interesting activities this year.

Evening school was held on Tuesday evening, November 8. All classes regularly scheduled for the afternoon were provided for in the evening schedule. Several hundreds of parents and friends were visitors upon that occasion.

This high school is one of the first, certainly in the State if not in the Middle West, to have an opportunity to receive instruction through television. The students registered in physics attended three days of lectures at a local theater where there was demonstrated for them the principles and workings of television. A class lecture was given to the students over television by the regular instructor.

The Scottsbluff Senior High School character-education program, entering its third year of activity, is providing some very splendid results as evidenced in the changes noticeable in the students. The program, in the main, is carried out through the homerooms. During each of the past three years a different approach to the subject has been made. For the current year this school is using as its basis the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education.

The Omaha Central High School has set up a specially supervised library study room for freshman students taking European history. Those observing the program are now convinced that this project is providing students with a library working

technique and is accustoming them to a broad survey of a large number of sources in history. The further plan of assigning seniors to one period in the library for a survey course in American history has very definitely provided an opportunity by which such students are in a very efficient way acquainting themselves with the best thought in the field of American history.

A second interesting project of the Omaha Central High School is the organization in both the senior and junior divisions of the "a cappella choir." This organization has and is providing an unusual opportunity to use a type of music hitherto seemingly too difficult for high-school students to study and become interested in singing.

DYNAMIC BIOLOGY

By Lewis Mills, Arthur O. Baker, and William L. Connor

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OTHERS SAY

FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

In writing our January number ("Bunk in Education") we set out to analyze some of the "hocus" in the profession. Now let us devote some time to defending ourselves against the insidious attacks on so-called "fads and frills" in the high school. Most of us are unable to determine just what these nonessentials are supposed to be. Others are as mystified as we.

President Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago offers a thought in this connection:

BLEED THE SCHOOLS RATHER THAN CHANGE POLITICS

Undoubtedly in the hysteria of inflation the schools, like the colleges and universities, did some things that they can now do without. But the things that communities propose to do to them in the hysteria of economy far surpass the wildest aberrations of bull-market days. We hear a great deal about frills. What are frills? Teachers' salaries appear to be frills in some cities. The health of school children is a frill in others. Since night schools are a frill in one community, we close them and throw 75,000 people into the streets. The plain fact is that the schools are under attack because it is easier to get money from them than it is to correct the fundamental iniquities and antiquities of local government. Only a people that had no conception of the place of education in its national life could contemplate the ruin of the next generation as the best remedy for governmental insolvency.

Mr. B. A. Stevens, Research Director of the Ohio Educational Association, has this to say:

The factor which the "fads and frills" critics usually overlook is that society has experienced some basic changes since public education was founded in the United States. Many of our communities are now strictly urban in character. All of the children of all of the people are now in schools. The effect of these two changes in modern society has been to pauperize the social environment of children on the one hand, and to place upon the school the responsibility of enabling children of all types of ability, interests, and character to secure the training most suitable to them for American citizenship. The school has been obliged to diversify the curriculum in order to compensate for the lack of proper

stimulation of the modern city environment, and to provide a variety of channels of activity which will enable children of all types of ability and interest to profit, at least to some degree, from their school experience.

If one wished to characterize anything in our present school curricula as a "fad" or a "frill," there are doubtless many segments of subject matter in the old "three R's" which might be classified as such.

Summing up, the following were listed as phases of our school activity most frequently classed as fads and frills: physical education, health training, art education, musical training, Latin, modern language, home economics, vocational or trade schools, vocational guidance, overteaching of 3 R's, handwriting drill, night schools, summer schools, radio and visual education, industrial arts.

And we are still criticized for the inclusion of fads and frills in our educational program. We wish to give ear to well-stated, thoughtful criticism at all times. But the individuals who speak and write of fads and frills lack specific reference. We are attacked with broad generalities, leaving too much for inference from listeners and readers. We must not conclude that these "panicky" demands are well considered and constructive.

Dr. Charles H. Judd of the University of Chicago believes America is learning a lesson from the depression. He says:

The present emergency has done much to teach the American people that all their institutions are interrelated. There has been some disposition in times past to think of schools as detached institutions. Leaders in commercial, industrial, and political life have seldom considered it to be important for them to spend time and energy in improving schools. School people have too often looked upon business and politics as subjects entirely outside the circle of their interests. The economic crisis has made us all aware in a new and vivid way that schools are a part of the general social order and that the curricula of schools and their methods of dealing with pupils are largely determined by the conditions of life outside the schools.

(Continued on page 441)

STRAWS IN THE EDUCATIONAL WIND

WILLIAM MCANDREW

Civic Education Needs Punch and Power. Education's supine position before political corruption will never change until the conception of what it means to be a citizen will take its place with compelling force and power in the minds of citizens, young and old. What citizenship means represents a faith to be stimulated and vitalized. Teacher, curriculum, and methods are for nothing else than the creation of persons who can and will be effective and competent in the good work of civic administration. The present system lacks punch and power. Professor Edward H. Reisner, *The New York Times*, July 20, 1931.

People Regard Civic Training Important. If you were to ask ten leading men of your community to name the most important subjects of study in a junior high school you would be likely to find that all of the ten place civic education first or second. All people recognize that the security and happiness of a community depend on this kind of training. James B. Edmondson, professor of education, University of Michigan, *Citizenship*, 1931.

The Most Important. Preparation for self-government in a democracy is more important than any other school service. Tenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1931.

Civic Order. Our schools draw their inspiration from a tradition that must be discarded. American public schools were established to secure civic order. Walter Robinson Smith, *Nation's Schools*, 1931.

Both Main Political Parties Recognize the Civic Obligation of Schools. "In a republic like ours the citizen is sovereign. It is important that the sovereign have intelligence. The free school is the promoter of that intelligence which is to preserve a free nation." National Republican Platform, 1888, *et seq.*

"We believe with Jefferson and other founders of the Republic that ignorance is the enemy of freedom and that the Federal Government should aid the schools." National Democratic Platform, 1924, *et seq.*

Proper Aims for Public Schools Are in the Preamble of the United States Constitution. We inherited the educational aims of the Old World. But the founders of the Republic planned a nation for specified purposes: union, justice, tranquility,

defense, general welfare, preservation of the blessings of liberty. They said these should be secured by public education. The States set up education at public expense. In tax-supported schools these aims must be paramount. Committee of National Education Association on "fundamental considerations," Fourth Yearbook, 1928.

Resolutions Strong Enough. At their convention in Cleveland, 1929, the school superintendents of the United States unanimously adopted this: "Again we remind ourselves that our State systems of education were established in accord with the proposals of Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, and a long line of farseeing statesmen for the purpose of preserving and improving our political institutions. Again we recall that our wages are paid and our equipment provided by a tax on all the people whether or not they be parents. Thus reminded, we pledge ourselves anew to the direct teaching of the duties of citizenship. Not culture, nor self-support, nor compliance with entrance requirements of more advanced schools shall turn us from the duty of teaching our youth the needs of our civic life and from inspiring our citizens with a determination to improve it."

Civic Training as Required by Law. By 1923, thirty-two States had laws requiring the teaching of political studies. From 1923 to 1927, sixteen States engaged in legislation intended to teach an understanding of the principles of American government. Nearly all the States require the study in elementary schools and up through the State universities. An open declaration of intent to inculcate patriotism is required in six States. "In general, it is left to the teachers how to interpret the law." Bessie L. Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American Text-books*, 1930.

The Promise Made When Free Schools Were Established. All the accounts I have read of the campaigns resulting in the passing of school-tax laws in the different States urged the appropriation of money of all citizens even other than parents on the ground that the schools would be run for general welfare not merely for the benefit of the children educated or of their families. Against the protest that to use Jones's money for the education of Brown's children was confiscation, the answer was made that the education was not for the benefit of Brown so much as for the safety of the commonwealth.

BOOK NOTES

MILDRED BATCHELDER

CHICAGO is in the foreground this year. With her own phenomenal hundred years' growth, it is particularly appropriate that she should be bringing into reality the Century of Progress Exposition. In looking forward to the exposition, Henry Justin Smith has chronicled the City's development in a brief and vivid book called *Chicago's Great Century* (Consolidated Publishers, Inc.).

Just as the city has sprung into a metropolis undreamed of by its early settlers, so new industries have evolved and grown to gigantic stature, and new scientific discoveries have brought within the realm of possibility feats which would have appeared magic to our forefathers. Some of the stories of growth have been written into a series of small and most readable books known as the *Century of Progress Series* (Williams and Wilkins). At the present time there are twenty-two of these announced for publication. Six have appeared. Each is written by some person who knows that subject thoroughly and who can present it in such a manner that any lay person interested will find the book a brief and understandable introduction to the field.

The New Necessity by Kettering and Orth pictures the dramatic history of the automobile. It goes back to the days of horse-drawn carriages and bicycles and brings the story down to the present describing the various difficulties with which the industry has had to contend. The story of lacquer and its revolutionizing the painting time, the account of the necessity for fuel without "knocks," and the resulting development of ethyl gas indicate the successful results which persistent experimentation have accomplished.

The Queen of the Sciences by E. T. Bell is a tribute to mathematics and a brief for its more extensive consideration in our

group education and in our individual culture. Professor Bell dispels the frequently held theory of absolute truth of conclusions of pure mathematics. He begins his book with Bertrand Russell's epigrammatic definition that "Mathematics may be defined as the subject in which we never know what we are talking about, nor whether what we are saying is true." With this disrupting beginning as a point of departure, Professor Bell tells the reader patiently and intelligently what his "Queen" signifies in her own domain and in the kindred lands.

Professor Allee of the University of Chicago is responsible for the volume on ecology called *Animal Life and Social Growth*. Dr. Bayne-Jones of Rochester, New York, has done *Man and Microbes*, an unusually popular and interesting volume, and Professor T. T. Read has done *Our Mineral Civilization*.

The titles of the books to come promise still greater variety of theme and if the present standard is maintained the contribution of these small and inexpensive publications will be of great value in making less esoteric the vocabulary and the salient ideas of some of the parts of the scientific and industrial world.

The following books are selected from *The Booklist* published by the American Library Association. Some of these books are not suggested for reading but are publications with which well-informed people should be familiar.

Educating for Citizenship; the sovereign state as ruler and as teacher, by GEORGE ALBERT COE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, 205 pages, \$2.00.

The author presents the problem of the co-ordination of the ruling power and the teaching power of the state as basic in education for life in a democracy. His plea is for an education of children and youth that will develop in them the

BOOK NOTES

best citizenship, and because of which they in turn shall demand the best of the state in the way of government. He surveys propaganda in the schools, inquires into the political significance of character education, and discusses the qualifications of the teacher and the development and tendencies of the new social studies.

The How and Why of Life, by EMMA WHEAT GILLMORE. New York: Horace Liveright, 1932, 196 pages, illustrations, \$2.00.

In this book the origin and development of animals and human beings are described in story form through conversations between a physician father and his young son. It is a successful attempt to present the subject of sex with simple directness and to show its relation to the whole living world. While designed for adolescent readers many adults will welcome this clear presentation.

Jehol, City of Emperors, by SVEN ANDERS HEDIN, translated from the Swedish by E. G. Nash. London: Routledge; New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1933, 278 pages, illustrated, \$3.75.

Unlike this author's *Across the Gobi Desert*, this book is not a record of exploration, but a delightful combination of history, biography, legend, and description relating to an eighteenth-century Chinese city. This summer capital near the Great Wall of Manchuria, built with extravagant splendor by the Manchu emperors, is now falling into decay, and is menaced by military destruction. A replica of a Jehol temple is being erected in Chicago under Dr. Hedin's supervision, as a part of the Century of Progress Exposition.

Education and the Social Crisis; a proposed program, by WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK. New York: Horace Liveright, 1932, 90 pages, \$1.25.

The author, professor of education, Columbia University, intends in this brief book "to summon the profession of education to a study of the stupendous task now looming before us as our civilization faces perhaps its greatest turning point in modern times." He believes that adult education is "tragically inadequate" and that schools must study current social problems close to life, whether or not controversial. An arresting, thought-provoking lecture. Should be read with Martin's *Civilizing Ourselves*.

100,000,000 Guinea Pigs; dangers in everyday foods, drugs, and cosmetics, by ARTHUR KALLET and F. J. SCHLINK. New York: Banguard Press, 1932, 312 pages, \$2.00.

Contending that the Pure Food and Drugs Act is not effective in protecting people from unwholesome foods and dangerous drugs, the authors cite numerous cases of poisoning and other ills, give the names of drugs and cosmetics that are not merely ineffective but often dangerous, and expose misleading advertising practices. Both writers are connected with Consumers' Research, Inc.

Experience and Art; some aspects of the esthetics of literature, by JOSEPH WOOD KRUTCH. New York: Smith and Haas, 1932, 222 pages, \$2.50.

The critic, whose earlier book *The Modern Temper* was both praised and criticized, in this new work raises equally controversial questions about life, experience, and literary aesthetics. Contents: The Realm of Art, The Norms of Feeling, Books and Men, Art, Magic, and Eternity, Poetry and Truth, The Function of Criticism, Poetry and Civilization.

The League Year-Book, 1932; first annual edition, edited by JUDITH JACKSON and STEPHEN KING-HALL. London: Nicholson; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 590 pages, \$3.50.

This first issue of an English reference book is almost an encyclopedia of the League of Nations. The text of the Covenant, and an explanation of the organization, and of the auxiliary associations, including the International Labor Organization and the Permanent Court of International Justice, are given in the first part of the book. The second half is a summary of the work of the League since September 1931. Lists of members of the secretariat staff, and of commissions and committees, and an annotated bibliography are given in appendices.

Civilizing Ourselves; intellectual maturity in the modern world, by EVERETT DEAN MARTIN. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1932, 329 pages, \$3.00.

A plea for intellectual maturity and a guide to the attainment of such maturity, through the recognition of the outworn attitudes and beliefs that retard modern culture, are embodied in this enlightening, philosophical work by the author of

The Meaning of a Liberal Education. "Never before was thinking so important, and the importance lies not so much in what we think as in how and why we think. It is very likely that how the intelligent minority learns to think of itself and its world may decide not only the issue of growing up in civilization, but the issue of civilization itself." A fearless book with a challenge for the thoughtful, liberal-minded reader.

Never Ask the End, by ISABEL PATERSON. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1933, 332 pages, \$2.50.

A modern novel concerned with two women and one man, all over forty, who happen to meet for a brief time in Europe. Marta had known both Pauline and Russ before; they all had in common a Middle West background; and all had experienced marriage. Interest in the book lies not in what they did on this holiday but in their rare and immediate congeniality and in their acceptance of life as it is. The technique of the novel is original and challenging. As in real life, the thoughts of the characters, disillusioned but not pessimistic, constantly cut across their witty, sophisticated conversation, and present memories of the past so vividly that at the close the reader has the complete story of each life. Not every one will enjoy this book, but to many mature readers, especially those of the generation portrayed, it will be a delight.

Can America Stay at Home?, by FRANK HERBERT SIMONDS. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932, 241 pages, illustrations, \$3.00.

A keen and penetrating criticism of America's relations to Europe since 1914, a companion volume to the author's *Can Europe Keep the Peace?* Based upon the author's wide experience as an international journalist, it is both authoritative and interesting.

The Right Book for the Right Child; a graded buying list of children's books. New York: The John Day Company, 1933, 357 pages, \$2.50.

"The books in this volume have been selected and annotated by a subcommittee of the Committee on Library Work with Children of the American Library Association under the chairmanship of Mary S. Wilkinson, director of work with children, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore," and "the books have been graded by the research depart-

ment of the Winnetka public schools under the supervision of Vivian Weedon, director of the research department, and Carleton Washburne, superintendent of schools, Winnetka, Illinois." Designed to help parent, teacher, and librarian select books suitable for the individual child, from pre-school through junior-high-school age. The preface explains how the books were selected and graded, and what points should be observed in the interpretation of the list.

Human Being; a story, by CHRISTOPHER DARLINGTON MORLEY. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1932, 350 pages, \$2.50.

By working backward, uncovering delightful episodes, and gathering odd bits of information, the writer attempts to reconstruct the life of an honest, quiet, rather romantic, ordinary human being whom he calls Richard Roe. Excellent portraits are drawn of his jealous wife, impudent young daughter, business associates, and especially of his secretary, Minnie Hutzler, a vital and efficient young woman, sometimes his mistress and always his loyal friend. Mr. Morley injects himself and his reflections into this sympathetic and understanding record of Richard Roe, making the most commonplace aspects of New York City in the early 1900's lively and enchanting.

President's Research Committee on Social Trends; recent social trends in the United States, with a foreword by HERBERT HOOVER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933, 2 volumes, diagrams, \$10.00.

A wealth of material of interest and importance to the general reader, as well as to the specialist, is contained in the 1,568 pages of these two large volumes, issued under the chairmanship of Wesley C. Mitchell. A seventy-five page review of findings precedes twenty-nine signed chapters, each by an expert who summarizes the findings of his own field. Thirteen volumes of special studies and supporting data will be published later. The range of subject is wide, covering not only the usual sociological topics, but others such as inventions, religion, art, and public health.

The Fragrant Path; a book about sweet scented flowers and leaves, by LOUISE WILDER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 407 pages, \$3.00.

The author treats of one specific phase of plants

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and flowers, namely, their fragrance. The following chapter headings indicate the range of topics: The Sweets of May, Gilliflowers, Night Scented Flowers, Green Aromatics (herbs), Odorous Grasses, Ferns, and Mushrooms. Written in a delightfully informal style with frequent alluring reference to other books.

Rip Tide, a Novel in Verse, by WILLIAM ROSE BENÉT. New York: Duffield Green, Inc., 1932, 80 pages, \$2.50.

Excellent narrative and fine poetry are combined in this dramatic story of Sheila, her lover Gordon, their son Barry, and Sheila's husband Dermot.

Earth's Processional, by David Morton. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932, 99 pages, \$2.00.

Among these delightful poems of the seasons, by a poet already well known as a writer of sonnets, are graceful lyrics quite as finished as the sonnets.

Van Loon's Geography: the story of the world we live in, written and illustrated by HENDRIK WILLEM VAN LOON. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1932, 525 pages, \$3.75.

The author calls his book "a study of man in search of food and shelter and leisure for himself and for his family," and he has consistently stressed the human and physical elements in geography rather than the economic and political side. The same individual point of view and style that characterized his *Story of Mankind* are present, though in less marked degree. Illustrations and maps by the author add much to the interest of the book.

Let's Start Over Again, by VASHNI YOUNG. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1932, 192 pages, \$1.50.

The author of *A Fortune to Share* offers a message of personal inspiration and an incentive to courageous facing of material losses to all who have suffered in the depression. Will be widely popular.

Peking Picnic, by ANN BRIDGE. New York: Little, Brown and Company, 1932, 354 pages, \$3.50.

Englishmen and Americans from the foreign legations in Peking are guests at a week-end

party held at one of the nearby temples. Their adventures, both real and psychological during these three days are unexpected and far-reaching and are told with great charm by an author who knows China intimately.

English Spring, by CHARLES STEPHEN BROOKS, with pictures drawn in pen and ink by MARY S. BROOKS. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932, 356 pages, illustrated, \$3.00.

The road taken by the author and his wife for their leisurely journey by bus, auto, and train followed the coast line around the southwest part of England. Plymouth, Land's End, Clovelly, Bath, and many small villages are described with casual humor and pictured in small drawings.

Sons, by PEARL S. BUCK. New York: The John Day Company, 1932, 467 pages, \$2.50.

As was forecast in *The Good Earth* the scheming sons of Wang Lung sold the land for which he had slaved. Two built up new fortunes in business, and the youngest brother, who is the central figure of this book, became a war lord and trained his only son for a military life. In the third generation the cycle back to the land is completed, for the son returns to a farmer's life in his grandfather's mud.

OTHERS SAY

(Continued from page 436)

NEW YORK CIVIC CODE

In response to a request from the National Self-Government Committee, the State Education Department of New York is planning a revision of requirements in certain fields. A complete revision of the syllabus for training in citizenship is planned for elementary grades. Training of a definite sort will be given in patriotism and citizenship. Extra-curricular activities in the high schools are to be studied to assure an even balance between work and social activities.

One contention of the committee was that scholarship requirements were so severe as to prevent teachers paying enough attention to character development.

The request was signed by John Dewey, Alfred E. Smith, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Paul D. Cravath, William McAndrew, Margaret B. Damrosch, Dr. Raymond B. Fosdick, Robert E. Simon, and Richard Welling.

BOOK REVIEWS

Thunder and Dawn, by Glenn Frank. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xiii + 404 pages.

Dr. Frank has made a comprehensive study of the factors that have led to the present muddled condition of the social order, and has laid them before the reader in a systematic way. The various sources of apprehension that lead "the prophets of doom" to foresee the collapse of our civilization; the different interpretation of these same phenomena, which leads another school of thinkers to foresee an improved social order based on the mastery of the machine; the possible utilization of the church, the school and university, and the intermingling of diverse racial elements, for the reconstruction of human relations, are given extended consideration.

The author sees three "roads of economic destiny" stretching before us, each having as its goal a wider distribution of wealth: (1) through the administration of the factors of business and industry; (2) through the more drastic taxation of incomes and inheritances; (3) through a revolutionary social overturn. It lies with political and economic leaders to determine which of these roads shall be followed. If a finer and more fruitful fu-

ture is not realized, it will be because political and industrial leadership fails, or because the people, in leaderless confusion, follow some false prophet; it will not be because the cards of fate are stacked against humanity. A.D.W.

First Yearbook: Some Aspects of the Social Sciences in the Schools. National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia. McKimley Publishing Company, 1931, 175 pages, \$2.00.

The National Council for the Social Studies strives to bring to the attention of teachers information that may promote better teaching. It has previously published both through its official organ, *The Historical Outlook*, and in separate booklets lists of historical fiction, textbooks, explanations of testing, reference materials, and collateral reading.

The first yearbook consists of eight contributions each dealing with a topic of real significance for social-study teachers and each one treated by a competent writer. Professor Dodd discusses history and patriotism; Professor Craven, objectives in history, H. E. Wilson presents a critical analysis of fused courses in social studies in junior high schools. Harboud presents a scholarly comparison of the treatment of the World War in French, German, English, and American history textbooks. Elmer Ellis reviews some recent books of interest to social-study teachers. P.W.L.C.

Microbe Hunters, by Paul de Kruif, Text Edition, edited by Harry G. Grover, with notes, questions, and index. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1932, xi + 368 pages, \$1.20.

In 1926 when the trade edition of *Microbe Hunters* was published it was a best seller. Everywhere people were talking about the author's unusual talent for making dry-as-dust research take on the glamour and dramatic intensity of great adventure. It was rich narrative, every page, but thoroughly reliable history and science, too, for Dr. de Kruif knows his microbes. The book has continued to be a best seller, the reprint edition having reached a new audience. The present edition is from new plates, an edition especially prepared for school use. The vivid style, the ray language, and the galloping, breathless narratives of truly great heroes in the great war to save life—these are sure to appeal to high-school students of all ages.

It is too bad that such a book must be offered to students with the traditional trappings of a text-

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BOOK REVIEWS

book—questions, footnotes, and suggestions for discussion. Everyone knows that these things are only signals for the wary student to raise his sales resistance, to crawl into his shell. A competent teacher does not stand in need of "suggestions" either, and the other kind will use notes and questions and suggestions in such a manner as to kill a good book. But the editor has tampered very little with the stories of Walter Reed, Pasteur, Koch, and the other great heroes of medical science about whom Dr. de Kruif has written so sympathetically. Instead of questions and suggestions for discussion, however, I should have preferred some illustrations, some decorations, spirited sketches in black and white drawn in the swift, accented rhythm of the stories. But I would not insist on these. The book is full of inspiration for pictures, and the students who get this inspiration will be pleased to make their own illustrations.

JOHN CARR DUFF

Child Psychology, by John J. B. Morgan.
New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1931,
ix + 474 pages, \$4.00.

It is the reviewer's opinion that Dr. Morgan's books strike thirteen more regularly than those of any other writer in the field of psychology. Especially in his *Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*, he gave to teachers a peculiarly beneficent viewpoint and attitude towards the causation of child behavior.

In the present volume, he directs attention to the nature and needs of the normal child in terms of his behavior and adjustments and his motor and emotional development. Motivation, imagination, verbal learning, thinking and working, play, and intelligence take on new and kinetic meaning when Morgan explains them.

His final chapter, "The Integrated Child," is especially valuable. In it, he stresses adjustment as a unitary process, the isolation of any part of which may be abstracted for clearness in exposition but not for treatment. Conflict is normal; "the objective of adjustment is not to enable the child to avoid conflict, but to select such modes of response as will provide the best solution for each dilemma as it arises."

"... adjustment depends on the child's reaction to the social order in which he finds himself . . . if he has failed in this, the most effective means of bringing about a satisfactory development is to control the social order sufficiently to ensure a more adequate adjustment." Let us have more of creative school control and less of abstracted clinical treat-

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P.W.L.C.

We Create a History Room, by Margaret Truesdale Gibbs. Teachers' Lesson Unit Series No. 23. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, 11 pages, 20 cents.

One of the recent "lesson units," edited by Professor W. A. McCall, exemplifies the new spirit of high-school social-studies instruction. In the elementary school such projects have been frequent and successful. In secondary schools they have been too frequently limited to creative arts and expression.

At Rosalia (Washington) High School the history classes found themselves assigned to a bare gloomy room with a northern exposure. Pupils and teacher set themselves to the task of constructing an interesting and attractive room. Each student made something decorative and historically significant for it. At a Parent-Teacher Association meeting a play, *The Priests of Ammon*, was presented, together with a mirth-provoking prehistoric orchestra, followed by a lecture and an exhibit of the embryonic history room. The associa-

tion responded by furnishing funds for the class to purchase a model of the *Discobolus* and a picture of primitive Indian life.

Such a unit written so as to reflect its sincerity, spontaneity, and tolerance should inspire us all to try something of the kind ourselves.

P.W.L.C.

The Way to Learn, by RUTH B. MCKOANE. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1931, 265 pages, \$1.00.

"To all young folks, with the hope that this little book may help many along the road to learning," is the author's dedication. She seeks to lead her readers to appreciate the importance of education, to understand the machinery of learning and its hygiene. Part II includes explanations of study tools, lesson preparation, and the use of the library, followed by advice concerning the study of English composition, literature, foreign languages, social sciences, mathematics, and sciences.

Quite properly, perhaps, the author accepts high-school subjects as they are too generally found. Advice to the student concerning home study, preparation for examinations, charting, difficult spelling words and composition errors,

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outlining compositions, memorizing vocabularies (in foreign languages) should prove helpful. It is possible that schools which are progressive enough to introduce a text in methods of study may frequently have advanced in curriculum practices beyond the *status quo* accepted by the author in preparing this text.

In her preface, the hope is expressed that the volume "will give to younger pupils some foundations upon which they may base their studying; some place from which they may start to grope their way out of the chaos of subject matter into an understanding of their work and on to methods of their own." May the aspiration, especially that of the last phrase, find fulfillment! P.W.L.C.

Water, Air, and Sound, by Frank Reh. New York: American Book Company, 1932, viii + 181 pages.

This is the first of a series of four books in elementary science designed to interest pupils in the natural phenomena and to train them in scientific method. This first volume deals with the properties, forms, compositions, and uses of water and air, and with social and aesthetic utilization of sound, particularly in music. The problem or unit method is used in approaching the study of the various topics; there is a wealth of illustration and a very interesting form of presentation and discussion. A.D.W.

Secondary School Administration, by JAMES B. EDMONSON, JOSEPH ROEMER, and FRANCIS L. BACON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, ix + 483 pages, \$2.25.

The quality of this volume is guaranteed by the character of its authors. Within the brief space of 400 pages they have set forth succinctly the practical problems which high-school administrators meet, and explained feasible methods for dealing with them. The text is followed by fourteen appendices containing interesting lists of functions, objectives, standards, which may serve as patterns for administrators and teachers in developing their own.

Four of the twenty-one chapters deal with student activities, two with secondary education and its organization, two with administrative techniques, and one each with discipline, guidance, library, health, instruction, study, textbooks, examinations and marks, standardizing agencies, college relations, public relations, the large high school, and the small high school.

The treatment is somewhat dogmatic and

stereotyped, as though the authors had taken firm grips on themselves, muttering: "We are writing as administrators now; so let us park our intelligences outside the door; for, of course, administration must be divorced from all philosophy and adventure."

The book tells the administrators and the aspirant for administrative positions what to do and how to do it clearly and effectively. But it does not encourage him to wonder why he should do it! P.W.L.C.

Society and Education, by JOHN A. KINNEMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xii + 558 pages, \$2.00.

This volume is primarily a sociological interpretation of the school curriculum.

For two decades, there has been an irresistible forward pressure of educational sociology as a controlling element in the redirection of school procedures and as a redirector of educational philosophy, psychology, administration, and method. The promotion work was done by sociological philosophers—Ward, Dewey, and Snedden. More recently, educational sociologists, intoxicated with the spirit of "science," have become ashamed of their past, have cried aloud

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that modern sociology depends not on contemplation and interpretation so much as it does on facts and scientific method. As a result, educational sociology is stultifying itself either by becoming a bastard psychology or mere futile techniques for discovering subject matter to be taught to children who straightway forget it!

It is fortunate that while Professor Kinneman pays lip homage to sociology as a science, he has the good sense to write his book as a social philosopher. Hence, it is a very valuable contribution to educational literature. His book encouraged reflection, appeals to one's own experiences and, hence, growing insight. Both as a textbook and as an addition to the library of every reader who likes to be stimulated by what he reads, this volume should find a warm welcome.

The dedication is so choice that it must be included whether it belongs in a review or not: "To Constance and Joan, whose frequent interruptions have delayed the appearance of this book, and to their Mother." P.W.L.C.

Social-Business Education in the Secondary Schools, by HERBERT A. and M. HENRIETTE TONNE. New York: New York University Press Bookstore, 1932, 288 pages, \$2.40.

This book deals with the training desirable for those phases of business which concern every member of organized society rather than the vocational type of business education. Thus does business education edge its way into a place in the core-curriculum sun. And it is difficult to meet the authors' arguments that the business defined in terms of economic changes, money, want-gratification, etc., makes a reasonable demand for core-curriculum placement. Such inclusion is complicated by the fact that modern mathematics, modern social science, modern practical arts, and modern English have so largely already pre-empted the field.

Dr. and Mrs. Tonne have set forth very capably the aims and subject matter of the secondary-school subjects which stress or include appreciable business materials; viz., junior business straining, economic geography, business law, merchandising subjects, business English, business organization, and economics. There are also brief but adequate chapters on methods of teaching, testing, and administration of social-business subjects, and on teacher training, curriculum making, and the program of studies in this field.

All in all, this volume has a very important contribution to make, albeit indirectly. It should

BOOK REVIEWS

lead all who are responsible for secondary curricula to reflect on the forest as well as on the trees—to attend to curriculum adjustment to children as well as to analyses and units. P.W.L.C.

The Art of Behavior, by FREDERICK WINSOR. Boston. Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1932, xi + 203 pages, \$1.75.

In *The Art of Behavior*, Mr. Winsor has tried to develop for his readers a basis for our accepted code of ethics which shall be independent of supernatural sanction, and yet more compelling than the mere force of convention. He tries to show that "if any intelligent group of men were to find themselves under the necessity of drawing a completely new set of moral laws, the existing ones having been destroyed or forgotten, they would almost certainly work out as a result of their deliberations a code of morals substantially exactly like the one accepted by the world as we find it." In order to do this, Mr. Winsor has shown how the English common law developed, and then has shown that our moral law is simply this same common law carried a little further. Many young people nowadays, for whom religion has lost its sanction, have need of such a foundation for right conduct and it is for them and their parents and teachers that this book is written.

Probably none of its readers will accept this book in its entirety without reservation. The very nature of the subject makes it inevitable that there should be differences of opinion on many details. But few can reject the fundamental theses on which the book is founded and discussion on the rest of the work is merely healthy disagreement.

Parents and teachers who have to justify the moral law to their charges will find this book a great aid. The basis is a rational one that will appeal to any high-school student and it is so written that they can understand it. Few books have treated the subject so well and yet so clearly.

F. W. SWIFT

Principles of Social Science—A Survey of Problems of American Democracy, by THAMES ROSS WILLIAMSON and EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932, 573 pages, \$1.60.

The title, *Principles of Social Science*, indicates the nature of the basic material of this text, and the subtitle its purpose and the course for which it is intended. The authors reject "fusion of the social studies" in the preface, and accept by partial fusion in Part V, General Problems. They treat first problems essentially economic, then those social, then those governmental, and lead up to the general

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problems involving knowledge of several social studies and assumed to be more complex. It is an attempt to combine subject treatment and problem teaching. The text is well adapted in organization, material, and "teaching aids" to the improvement of the usual procedures in such a course.

The order of material is: basic information (topically organized), "Significant Words and Phrases," "Questions, Problems, or Projects, References." It may be predicted that in using the book this order usually will be followed. The text will be studied, new terms will be drilled, grasp of ideas will be tested by the questions, and problems will be solved.

The publishers' claim that the problem approach is used throughout is hardly warranted. True, Part I is an excellent discussion of problems arranged as problems and their answers. Each succeeding part has a very brief preview, but the textual treatment is almost invaluable, descriptive and expository. The problem attitude in attacking the material is not much stimulated thereby. A genuine problem approach and treatment holds the problem in mind, and shows how information and principles are used to arrive at the solution.

Every textbook presupposes a teacher. Teachers using the problem method will formulate through discussion the major problems and the minor ones involved and decide what needs to be known to arrive at a solution. The text furnishes the necessary data in concise form, not too technical. The "Significant Words and Phrases" suggested for drill will be useful if their number does not lead into verbalism. The very excellent glossary will aid in the development of vocabulary. C.M.G.

Parent Education. Second Yearbook. Washington: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1931, vi + 222 pages, \$1.00.

In this yearbook are set forth the major contributions to the education of parents that have resulted from the White House Conference on Child Welfare (Part I), summaries of the educational programs for parents undertaken by fifteen State congresses of Parents and Teachers (Part II), and books and magazines and study questions of value in connection with parent education, (Part III).

The wide range of successful activities of parent groups looking to their own better understanding of science and arts is most challenging. Truly, we may be approaching the day of self-education when formal schooling ceases to have much significance except as an outworn fetish.

P.W.L.C.